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CONTENTS

OF

TWENTY-SEVENTH VOLUME,

SECOND HALF.

Page
A DISTINGUISHED FAMILY OF FATIMIDE CADIS (AL-NU'MĀN) IN THE TENTH CENTURY.—By RICHARD GOTTHEIL, Professor in Columbia University, New York City
Supplement to the Old-Babylonian Vocabularies.—By R. J. Lau, Ph.D., Columbia University, New York City
ĀBĒL (אֶבֶלְי) וא THE BIBLE.—By R. J. LAU, Ph.D., Columbia University, New York City
The Pi'lel in Hebrew.—By Louis B. Wolfenson, Johns Hopkins University, Baltimore, Md
Contributions to Comparative Philippine Grammar.—By Frank R. Blake, Ph.D., Johns Hopkius University, Baltimore, Md
THERE OBJECTS IN THE COELECTION OF MR: HERBERT CLARK, OF JERU- SALEM.—By GEORGE A. BARTON, Professor in Bryn Mawr, College, Bryn Mawr, Pa. 400 STUDIES OF SANSKRIT WORDS.—By Edwin W. Fay, Professor in the University of Texas, Austin, Texas. 402
Notes on the Mrccharatika.—By Arthur W. Ryder, Ph.D., The University of California, Berkeley, Cal
THE BUDDHISTIC RULE AGAINST EATING MEAT.—By E. WASHBURN HOP- KINS, Professor in Yale University, New Haven, Conn
Proceedings at New Haven, Conn, April 17 and 18, 1906 465
Attendance
Correspondence
Necrology 466
Report of the Treasurer

	iv ·	
		Page
	Report of the Librarian	468
	Report of the Editors	469
	Members elected	
	Officers elected	470
	Report of the Directors	472
Lis	et of Members, 1906	174
	et of exchanges	
	st and prices of publications	
	tice to contributors and general notices	

JOURNAL

OF THE

AMERICAN ORIENTAL SOCIETY.

A Distinguished Family of Fatimide Cadis (al-Nu'mān)
in the Tenth Contury.—By Richard Gotthell, Professor
in Columbia University, New York City.

I. INTRODUCTION.

In the whole of Mohammedan history there are few epochs quite as interesting as that during which the Shī'a propaganda manifested itself politically in Egypt, maintaining there for more than 200 years a kingdom which was a center of commercial and literary activity. The religious side of this propaganda was kept alive by the usual Alid tergiversations, and from out of this upbuilding came much of the turmoil in which Druse and Ismailian pretensions were hatched.

It seems to have been a somewhat simple matter for the people of Egypt to pass from one system to another. They were willing to take their religion as it was given to them, and at no time do they seem to have thought with Goethe:

> "Was du ererbt von deinen Vätern hast, Erwirb es, um es zu besitzen."

In spite of the large Coptic element in the population, it had not been too difficult a task to impress the faith of the prophet upon the land of the Pharaohs. Egypt is the classic home of the corvĉe; and, whether used by an old Pharaoh in dragging his statue to the place of its permanent situation, or by 'Amribn

¹ This has been excellently set forth in Butler's Arabic Conquest of Egypt, Oxford, 1902.

al-'Āsī in re-cutting the canal that once joined lower Egypt to the Red Sea, or by Ismail Pasha in helping the French to build a Suez Canal, it shows a more than ordinary apathy on the part of the inhabitants, and a singular willingness to acquiesce quietly in the stings and goads of fortune. In the same manner, it does not seem to have been too difficult for them to pass from the Sunnite faith to the Shī'ite'(if faith it may be called), when Jauhar al-Ķā'id conquered the country in 969 for his master al-Mu'izz; and they were as ready to fall back again upon the Sunna when the Kurd Saladin, in September, 1171, caused the Khuṭbah to be pronounced in the name of the Abbāsid caliph, al-Mustadī.

One reason for the ease with which these changes were effected must be found in the small difference it made to the people at large whether in the official utterances Ali was blessed or cursed. That was food for the theologians and a tid-bit for the jurists. The lower classes had to live their every-day and humdrum life as they had done in the past; and the differences between Sunnite and Shī'ite actual practice seems to have been small—to us they appear infinitesimal. The geographical writer al-Mukaddasī has an interesting passage on the observances peculiar to the Fatimides. He says: "There are three classes of Fatimide peculiarities. The first is one in which the (orthodox) Imams were also divided, as the long inserted or supererogatory prayer at the morning devotions and the audible recitation of

¹ This is due to the fact that the Shī'a system was developed at a time when the other and canonical legal systems were already in existence. Both the Sunna and the Shī'a, as regards their religious practices, are built up from one and the same basis. See Von Kremer, Culturge-schichte, vol. i, p. 501; id. Herrschende Ideen, p. 389.

² In de Goeje, Bibliotheca Geographorum Arabicorum, vol. iii, p. 237. 16. On the مذهب اهل البيت see Ibn Khaldūn, Muķāddamāt (ed. Beirut, 1886), p. 390. A list of works on Shī'a Fikh is given by al-Nadīm, Fihrist, p. 219. On some other and equally minor points of difference, see the end of the poem by Dā'ūd ibn 'Umar al Baṣīr al-Anṭākī in his published by Goldziher, Beitrāge zur Literaturgeschichte der Št'a in Sitz. Ber. der Wiener Akad., vol. lxxviii, p. 520, and compare Tornauw, Le Droit Musulman, Paris, 1860, p. 24.

a De Sacy (Chrestomathie Arabe, vol. i, p. 162), says that the قنوت is the prayer containing the formula انّا لك قانتون; but see the tradition

the basmallāh, the witr which goes with the rak'a, and the like. Their second peculiarity is to return to some of the observances of former generations, as the double repetition of the

cited in Lane, col. 2566 القنوت طول القنوت, and al-Bukhārī, Ṣahīḥ, ed. Krehl, vol. i, p. 204, s.v. باب القنوت; al-Shirāzi, al-Tanbīh, (ed. A. W. T. Juynboll, Leiden, 1879), p. 24. 21; al-Sha'rānī, Kashf al-Ghumma, Cairo, 1281, vol. i, p. 85. It is evident that the قنوة a sort of supererogatory prayer (the Mohammadans call such inserted between the rak'as (وفافل) inserted between the rak'as (وفافل) inserted between the rak'as (وأفلل المسلمة ا

See the traditions on this point in al-Bukhārī, vol. i, pp. 197, 198, 201, and al-Nawawi, as cited by Goldziher, Beiträge, pp. 457, 522, and in Ibn Sa'd, vol. v. (Leiden, 1905) p. 266 (when Mohammed recited the first Sura he was not heard to add the basmallah. Asked about this, he answered: لو اسررتها لجهرت بها). Until the year 258 A. H. the basınallah was recited aloud in Fustat; then a change was made; but al-Jauhar reintroduced the older practice in 362 A. H.; see de Sacy, I. c., vol. i. p. 162. The Shāfi'ite practice was in this respect, as in so many others, in consonance with that of the Shi'a. See the quotation from مختصر الحاوي Abu-l-Fidā on p. 220, n. 3; and Abū al Naķīb al-Tunturī (Kazan, 1899), p. at. Al-Zamakhshari (al-Kashshaf, ed. Lees, vol. i, p. 5), has an interesting note upon the different usage in this respect. According to him, the difference depended upon the question whether the basmallah was or was not an integral part of the Sura; the "readers" of Medina, Başra and Damascus held that it was not, and there-ولذلك لا يجهر) fore did not read it aloud when it occurred in a prayer but those of Mecca and Kufa did. See, (بها عندهم في الصلوة also, al-Baidāwī, vol. i, p. 3.

the وقر is a prayer accompanied by an uneven number of rak'as—from one up to eleven. See al-Shīrāzi, al-Tanbīh, p. 27. 5.

ikāma which the Banū Umayya had reduced to one;¹ the wearing of white, which the Banū al-'Abbās had changed to black.' The third peculiarity is to follow such customs as the Imāms had indeed not prohibited, though they had not been known before this time: e. g., to use the expression قصل المالية على الصلح "Come to prayer!" in the adhān;² to celebrate that day as the first of the month on wheh the new moon is sighted; 'and to accompany the prayer said at an eclipse with five rak'as and two sujūds to every rak'a."

The religious and juridic rite originally followed by the Mohammedans in Egypt had been that of Mālik ibn Anas;

¹ The is is the call to prayer which immediately follows the See Dozy, vol. ii, p. 424; Tornauw, Le Droit Musulman, p. 57: "Après le azon on prononce l'ekomeh. Ce sont les mêmes paroles: Allah Akber—seulement dans l'ekomeh on ne jette l'exclamation que deux fois, tandis qu'on la repète quatre fois dans l'azon." A. Querry, Droit Musulman, vol. i, p. 66.

² See the material upon the various colors affected by different Muhammadan parties which I have collected in ZA., vol. xiii, p. 194, note 1, and vol. xiv, p. 228, note 7. The change to white dress was immediately introduced upon al-Jauhar's gaining possession of the mosque of 'Amr (الجامع العتيق) in Fostāt. See Stanley Lane-Poole, History of Egypt, p. 103 and the following note.

According to Abu-l-Fidā the expression was العمل على خير العمل الاولى من سنة تسع وخمسين (المولى من سنة تسع وخمسين الاولى من سنة تسع وخمسين وأدل وامر باذن فيه وثلثماثة قدم جوهر الى جامع ابن طولون وامر باذن فيه بذلك بحتى على خير العمل. ثم اذن بعده في الجامع العتيق بذلك بحتى على خير العمل. ثم اذن بعده في الحامة الرحمن الرحيم أنه found in Ibn Sa'd, ed. Tallqvist, p. 77. See, also, JA. 1836, 3, p. 57, Ibn Khallikān, vol. i, p. 344, and Ibn Khaldūn, Kitāb al'Ibar, vol. iv, p. الهم: and especially al-Makrīzī, Khitat, vol. ii, pp. 340, 342, and the full account, ib. p. 269.

See de Sacy, Chrestomathie Arabe, vol. i, p. 161.

on the Sunnite practice, see al-Bukhārī, l. c., vol. i, pp. ۲۷۴ and ۱۹۴, and Muhammad ibn 'Alī Ṣiddīķ Ḥasan فتع العلام لشرح بلوغ , vol. i, p. 291. On the different customs, see al-Shaʿrānī, Kitāb al-Mīzān, vol. i. p. ۱۷۴.

but when in \$13 Muhammad al-Shāfi'ī came to settle definitely in Fostat, his legal doctrines commenced to gain prevalence' and they remained prevalent until in the 16th century the Turks introduced the Hanafite system.2 Upon the arrival of al-Mu'izz, it was natural that this should be changed. But the Fatimides seem to have been rather large-minded in this respect, if not in others." They were sufficiently latitudinarian to allow all the four forms of Mohammedan canon law to be taught in the schools and to be used by the adherents of different parties.4 From the time of al-Mustansir on, we read of Shaffite doctors being appointed to the chief cadiship. Al-Mu'izz himself seems to have gone slowly in forcing upon the country Shi'ite practices. The cadi whom he found in office, 'Abu Tāhir, received permission to continue his functions. Probably he fitted himself conveniently into the changed circumstances; for it is related that he came to Alexandria and greeted the new caliph in a somewhat ostentatious manner. Al-Makrīzī is quite explicit in his statement that Shī'ite law was first taught in Cairo by the son of the Fatimide cadi whom al-Mu'izz had brought with him. "Fatimide law," he says, "according to Shi'ite doctrine was first taught at the Azhar in Safar 365 (975), when 'Ali Ibn al-Nu'man, the cadi, sat in the Cairo mosque known as the Azhar and dictated a compendium of law composed by his father for the Shī'ites." This work was called al-Iktisar.

The Shī'a naturally looked with more favour upon the Shāfi'ite system, because of the position the latter took in regard to the use of

the , قماس . See Goldziher, Beiträge, pp. 485, 500.

a favorite designation with which the Shī'a glorified , a favorite designation with which the Shī'a its political leaders. They, therefore, speak of the سنة اهل البيت, see Goldziher in ZDMG., vol. xxxvi, p. 279.

¹ al-Makrīzī, Khitat, vol. ii, p. 334.

² See Snouck-Hurgronje in ZDMG., vol. liii, p. 134.

³ See Guyard in JA., 1877, 1, p. 335.

⁴ In the year 425 A.H. four cadis were appointed: An Imāmī, an Isma'îlî, a Malikite and a Shāfi'ite. See al-Makrīzī, Khitat, vol. ii, p. 343

I have the quotation from Mustafa Bairam's مسالة on the Azhar Mosque (Cairo, 1821 A. H.), p. 28. [See al-Khitat, vol. ii, p. 841.] The title of this work is said by Ibn Khallikan (vol. iii, p. 565) to have been 'al-Intişār;" see further on p. 228.

Ya'kūb ibn Killis (the renegade Jew and the first Fatimide vizier') went further than did his master. During the reign of al-'Azīz, the son of al-Mu'izz, the Caliph compelled—as al-Makrīzī also tells us-all the poets, philosophers, and learned men to come to his house and listen to the exposition of a little book that Ibn Killis had put together containing whatever of Ismaili canon law he had heard from al-Mu'izz and al-'Azīz. days and on Fridays he was accustomed to hold a special levee, at which he expounded Fatimide theories. The caliph made attendance at these levees compulsory upon the learned men and the doctors; a special building being erected for that purpose next to the Azhar. During the reign of al-Hākim, the people were in such dread of their ruler that they joined the Shī'a in large numbers and 'Abd al-'Azīz al-Nu'mān had to hold daily sessions, at which the initiated were received.2 The theologians had evidently gained the upper hand; and how stringent the spirit was liable to become may be seen from the fact that in the year 381 (991) a man was actually driven from the city because a copy of Mālik's al-Muwatta had been found in his possession.* In the year 380 (990) a special Jāmi'-called al-Jāmi' al-Hākimī was erected for the benefit of the Shī'a propaganda; but it was not finished until the year 403 (1012).4

As all Mohammedan law is really canonical law, the commander of the ship of state had to depend very largely upon his steersman at the helm. That steersman was usually and naturally the cadi, and the cadi at first had a position second only to that of the caliph himself. If al-Makrīzī is to be credited, al-Mu'izz had no vizier at all; and the duty of spreading Shī'a doctrine and of consolidating Shī'a practices devolved upon the cadi. The position that he held was therefore an important one; and, in addition, at times the superintendency of the mint and of the bureau of weights and measures was also in his hands. After a while the cadi also became the chief

al-Makrīzī in Jamaleddinni Togri-Bardii Annales, ed. J. E. Carlyle (Cantab. 1792), Notes, p. 5.

² De Sacy, Les Druses, p. ccxi.

³ Muştafa Bairam, l. c., p. 23, al-Khitat, vol. ii, p. 341.

^{*}al-Makrīzī, Khitat, vol. ii, p. 277; Van Berchem, Corpus Inscriptionum Arabicarum, p. 50.

preacher. The holders of the office must therefore have been men of some significance, and their history is closely intertwined with that of the country itself. August Müller, in speaking of the Barmecides, and the services that they rendered to the Abbāsid caliphate of Bagdad, calls attention to the fact that

¹ Upon the various functions attributed to the cadi in addition to the judgeship, see the instructive remarks of Ibn Khaldun, Mukaddamāt, p. 14" below. Ahmad ibn 'Ali al-Kalkashandi, in his work on the geography and administration of Egypt, (at least in the part translated by Wüstenfeld in Abh. der Königl. Gesell. der Wiss. Göttingen, 1879, p. 184) speaks only of the surveillance of the markets being at times in his hands. Happily, the whole of this informing work is in course of publication by the Khedivial Library in Cairo. The importance of the "Chief Preacher" in the Fatimide period is justly brought out by al-Maķrīzī (al-Khiṭaṭ, vol. i, p. 390; see, also, De Sacy, l. c., vol. i, p. 140); upon him rested a good part of the bnus to propagate Shī'a doctrines. Al-Kalkashandi seems to know nothing of the union of the offices of : but al-Makrīzī has the following : داعي الدعاة and قاضي القضاة ويكون في بعض الاوقات داعيا فيقال له حينتد قاضي القضاة Theoretically, it was the vizier to whom the functions of the cadi belonged (see Mawardi, Constitutiones politicae, ed. R. Enger, Bonn 1853, p. 39, 1); if he was unwilling to exercise the functions he could appoint deputies. This must be the meaning of al-Makrizi . وكان من عادة الدولة انَّه اذا كان وزير : (Khitat, vol. i, p. 408) ين عند نيابة عند القضا رجلا نيابة عند عند رجلا نيابة عند the union of the two offices (viziership and cadiship) occurred only in a few cases; al-Kalkashandī, in his account of the wazīr (l. c., p. 181) knows nothing of it. Aḥmad ibn Sa'd al-Dīn al-Ghumrī in his قضية الأعلام (Paris Ms. 1850) mentions the cases of Ahmad ibn Zakarīyā and Ibrāhīm ibn Kudaina. Muḥammad ibn Aḥmad ibn Iyās recalls that al-Yazuri, at the time of the Fatimid al-Mustansir, filled both offices: خلع على القاضي ابو محمّد الحسن بن على اليازوري واستقرّ .(Paris Ms.1822 بدائع الزهور) به وزيرا وقاضى قضا الشافعية According to al-Shirazi, the ultimate authority in the appointing of a cadi was vested in the spiritual or virtual head of the community : .a. ولا يصحّ القضاء الآ بتولية الامام او من فوض اليه الامام p. 313, 3).

for more than fifty years this family was in the service of the state. He adds: "Das ist meines Wissens sonst überhaupt nicht und anderswo selten genug dagewesen." It is therefore not without interest to see that in the early years of the Fatimides, and for a term covering more than eighty years, the office of cadi was held (with periods of intermission) by members of one and the same family, named al-Nu'mān; and I have tried in the following paper to reconstruct the history of this family from both printed and manuscript sources.

In addition to the individual biographies of cadis in such dictionaries as that of Ibn Khallikān and its continuation by Muḥammad Ibn Shākir al-Kutubi,² the history of the cadis in the chief Islamic centers formed a special branch of Mohammedan biographical science. In his chapter on 'Ilm al-Ta'rīkh,² Hājī Khalīfa divides this science into the following categories: 1, the general history of the cadis; 2, the history of the cadis of Egypt; 3, the history of the cadis of Bagdad; 4, the history of the cadis of Basra; 5, the history of the cadis of Cordova; and 6, the history of the cadis of Damaseus.

The history of the Egyptian cadis seems first to have been written by Abū 'Umar Muḥammad ibn Yūsuf ibn Ya'kūb al-Kindī down to the year 246 A. H. (860). This was continued by Abū Muḥammad Ḥasan ibn Ibrūhīm ibn Zūlāk, who carried it down to and through the biography of Muḥammad ibn al-Nu'mān (386 A. H., i. e. 996). Hājī Khalīfa says that an appendix to this work of Ibn Zūlāk was written by Shihāb al-Dīn Aḥmad ibn 'Alī ibn Ḥajar' up to the year 852 A. H. (1448) under the title

¹ Der Islam, vol. 1, p. 465.

² Fawāt al-Wafayāt, Būlāk, 1288 and 1289 A. H.

³ Ed. Flügel, vol. ii, p. 97.

A Ms. of this work is in the British Museum; see de Goeje in ZDMG. vol. l, p. 741. Al-Kindī's كتاب مصر وفضائلها was published in 1896 by J. Östrupp, (Bulletin de l'Académie Royale, Copenhagen, 1896, No. 4), who has made it probable that this little tract of Abū 'Umar was published by his son 'Umar al-Kindī.

⁵ Abū-l-Fadl Aḥmad ibn 'Alī ibn Muḥammad ibn Ḥajar was born in Ascalon (al-'Askalānī) in 1872 and officiated as Chief Cadi in Cairo from 1424 to 1449. This will explain his interest in the history of his predecessors in office. He was a most fruitful writer on ḥadīth, and biography—as well as something of a poet. See a list of his works in

رفع الإصر في قضاة مصر. This work of Ibn Hajar seems to be more than a mere appendix. It is really a biographical dictionary, arranged in alphabetical order, and probably contains all the data to be found in the preceding works.¹ The Rafe al-Isr was continued by the author's pupil, Shams al-Din Muhammad ibn 'Abd al-Raḥmān al-Sakhawī, who entitled his work العلماء والرواة (That which is desired in regard to the, etc.).² It seems a pity that the work of Ibn Zūlāk has not come down to us; al-Siyūtī and Ibn Khallikān evidently made use of it, as they cite it several times.¹ Nor has Ibn Zūlāk's other work, قاريح مصر وفضائلها, shared a better fate. I can not believe that the Paris Ms. 1817' is really the work of so

Brockelmann, Gesch. der Arab. Lit., vol. ii, p. 67. A very full account of the literary activity of Ibn Ḥajar can be found in his biography written by Shams al-Din Muḥammad ibn 'Alī al-Shaḥawī (Ms. Paris, No. 2105, fol. 191 b. et seq.—a voluminous work). Cf. also Quatremère, Hist. des Sultans Mamlouks, vol. i, 2, pp. 209 et seq.

Those portions which deal with the family al-Nu'mān will be found below, both in text and in translation based upon the Paris Ms. No. 2149. A second (and more correct) Ms. has lately been added to the same collection from the library of the late Ch. Schefer. It is numbered 5898. No. 2152 of the same collection, containing النجوم الزاهرة بين الزاهرة بين الزاهرة بين الزاهرة بين الإنجام الزاهرة بين ال

A mukhtaşar of this was composed by 'Alī ibn al-Luţf al-Shāfi'i. See Hāji Khalifa, vol. iii, p. 478; vol. iv, p. 561.

See, also, Carl H. Becker, Beiträge zur Geschichte Ägyptens, i. p. 14. د تأريح مصر وفضائلها لابن زولان ' On Ibn Zūlāķ see Ibn Khal-

likān (de Slane's translation) vol. i, p. 388—who mentions only his topographical description of Egypt and his history of the Egyptian cadis. The latter, it is known, was merely a continuation of a work with the same title by al-Kindī. important an authority as Ibn Zūlāk seems to have been. It is hardly of more worth than Ms. 1816 of the same library, and of which the compilers of the catalogue very properly say "cet opuscle ne renferme que des fables." I may also mention Ms. 1819, which the catalogue describes as identical with Ms. 1817.

At a later date Ahmad ibn Sa'd al-Dīn al-Ghumrī al-Shāfi'ī wrote a history of Egypt down to the year 1640 in double rajaz verses, with the dates given in the form of chronograms. To this he appended a list of the cadis. To write such and many other things in verse was often an affectation of an Arab writer. Even before the time of al-Ghumrī, a similar thing had been done by one Abū 'Abdallāh Muḥammad ibn Dāniyāl al-Mauṣilī al-Khuzā'ī (died November, 1310), an oculist in Cairo, dealing specifically with the cadis of Egypt in ninety-nine verses of a like kind'; to which al-Siyūṭī added those who had officiated from the time of Badr al-Jamā'a up to his own day (1481). Probably more important than these works must have been a history of Egypt written by Muḥammad ibn Abī-

المعرب وقائع الأمور وعائع الدعور واخبار الديار الد

Brockelmann, I. c., vol. ii, p. 297. There are some 9,000 verses in the Berlin Ms. of this work. See Ahlwardt's Catalogue, No. 9831. I have given, further on, that portion which deals with the al-Nu'mān family, taken from Paris Ms. No. 1850.

⁴ Brockelmann, I, c., vol. ii, p. 8. They form the basis for Ibn Hajar's Raf* al-Isr, and are there cited in full.

Both are printed in al-Siyūtl's Huşn al-Muḥāḍara (Cairo, 1321), vol. ii, pp. 117-121.

I-Kāsim 'Ubaid Allāh ibn Aḥmad al-Musabbiḥī (976–1029).' This work, entitled ونضائلها is said to have comprised some 26,000 pages, and is frequently quoted as one of the best authorities; but only an occasional part has remained to testify to its worth. There are, of course, plentiful notices about the Egyptian cadis in the monumental work of al-Makrīzī (1364–1442; al-Khitat); and al-Siyūtī in his Huṣn al-Muḥādara has a special chapter, headed من كُنْ تَضَاةٌ مَصَ لَمُ اللهُ اللهُ

II. THE FAMILY OF AL-NU'MAN.

Kāfūr the Irshīd had placed Abū Ṭāhir Muḥammad ibn Aḥmad ibn 'Abdallāh al-Baghdādī al-Dihlī al-Mālikī in office as cadi during the year 348 A.H. He remained cadi, some say for sixteen, others for eighteen years. When al-Mu'izz came to Egypt on Sha'bān 23, 362 (May 29, 973), he brought with him his own cadi, al-Nu'mān." The father of al-Nu'mān, Abū

¹ His biography is given in Tallqvist, Fragmente des 1bn 8a'd, pp. 96-99; 102-104; Ibn Khallikān (transl.) vol. iii, p. 87. He lived 976-1029. See, also, Becker, l. c., i, pp. 16, 32 et al. It is well known that the name is often found in Mss. as المستحى. For the correct pronunciation, in addition to the authorities quoted by Becker, l. c., p. 16, note 3, see Ibn Khallikān, vol. iii, p. 90, and al-Dhahabī, al-Mushtabih, ed. P. de Jong., 1881 p. 🗚 .

² Ed. Cairo, 1321 A.H., vol. ii, p. 95.

Hanīfa, was himself a well-known littérateur, who had died at the advanced age of 104. Al-Nu'man had acted as cadi to the army of the Fatimides on its journey from the land of the Berbers; but Abū Tāhir came to Alexandria to meet al-Mu'izz, and seems to have pleased al-Mu'izz so much that he was allowed to continue in office.1 Ibn Nu'man had thus little to do; but occasionally he was called upon to revise the judgments given by Abū Tāhir. One of these cases must have occurred in the year 974, for he died before the case was concluded, either on Rajab 1, or on the last day of Jumada 363 A.H. Al-Nu'man seems to have been a learned jurist. At first an adherent of the school of Malik, at a later time he adapted himself to the Shī'a teachings of his master, al-Mu'izz. To his first period belongs a work كتاب اختلاف اصول المذاهب dealing with the different principles upon which the various schools founded their systems. He then became an ardent Fatimide, and placed his pen in its service, writing a work اختلاف الفقهاء upon the differences between the jurists, in which he defended the Shī'a كتاب ابتداء الدعوة To the same class belongs his تتاب ابتداء الدعوة claims. an account of the first preaching of Fatimide doctrines. Two further juridic works written by him are mentioned: (The Triumph or Vindicator); كتاب الانتصار and كتاب الاخبار but to what subject they refer, we do not know; and a poetic piece المنتخب (Choice Selection). Only one of his writings

قامياتي . Al-Shahrastānī, al-Milalw-al-Niḥal, ed. Cureton, p. ١٠٠٠ : الباطنية وهم يقولون نحن اسمعيلية (ed. G. Van Vloten) 1895, p. ٣١ : الاسمعيليّة وهم الباطنيّة

¹ Ibn Khallikan, vol. iii, p. 379; Huşn, vol. ii, p. 101.

² See the case cited by Ibn Hajar. According to the latter, this occurred on the 25th day of the month: but the name of the month is not given.

as كتاب افتتاح الدعوة الطاهرة ; قاب افتتاح الدعوة الطاهرة as given by al-Makrīzī in his كتاب المقفّا . A small extract from this work is given by Quatremère in JA. 1836, ii, p. 123. See, also, Brockelmann, l. c. vol. 1, p. 188.

on law seems to have been spared شرح الأخبار في فضائل النبي on the excellency of the prophet and the claims of Ali, which may be the كتاب الأخبار mentioned above; while of his three polemical work against Abū Hanīfa, Mālik, al-Shāfi'ī and al-Suraij, one may be the كتاب الانتصار. He is also said to have written a work on the "meritorious and disgraceful acts (committed by the Arabian tribes)." He is praised by Ibn . Zūlāk for his knowledge of the Koran, of Arabic poetry, philology, pre-Islamic history, and jurisprudence. He left several sons, two of whom followed him in the office of cadi.

Abū Tāhir was evidently growing old, and al-Mu'izz gave him as assistant or associate the son of al-Nu'mān, Abū al-Ḥasan 'Alī. 'Alī was born in Rajab 328 (940), probably in Mahdīyya, the city in which the dynasty took its rise. He officiated in the Jāmi' al-'Atīk in old Cairo, while Abū Tāhir had his own Majlis. When al-Mu'izz died, in 365 A. H. (975), his successor al-'Azīz confirmed the arrangement made by his father. In addition, Abū al-Ḥusain was appointed over the mint,' an office often committed to the care of the cadi in those days, as well as over the two mosques, probably the one in Fostāt and the other in Cairo. This double authority could naturally not last long, A case is mentioned where Abū Tāhir imprisoned certain persons, who however appealed to 'Alī and were set free. As age and disease crept over him, Abū Tāhir had to be carried about; and one day he met the caliph at the Bab al-Diyāfa' and asked him to

¹ Berlin Ms. No. 9662, though this seems to contain only an extract from the larger work on "die Vorzüglichkeit des Profeten und die Berechtigung Ali's auf die Nachfolgerschaft."

⁹ Fihrist, vol. 1, p. 218.

³ Ibn Khallikān, however, says Rabī' i. 329.

^{&#}x27;On the situation of the دار الضرب see al-Makrīzī, al-Khiṭaṭ, vol. i, pp. 406, 445; Ravisse, Essai zur l'histoire et sur la topographie du Caire, p. 76; P. Casanova, Histoire et Description de la Citadelle du Caire, p. 720.

⁵ The Bāb al-Piyāfa must have been near to the citadel. There was a palace called Dār al-Piyāfa. See Casanova, La citadelle du Caire in the Mémoires of the Mission archéologique française du Caire, vol. vi, p. 738, and Ibn Iyās, کتاب قاریح مصر (Būlāķ 1311, A.H.), vol. i, pp.

^{147, 4; 310, 18.} Ibn Khallikān says "near the Dār al-Ṣanā'a" (al-Maķrīzī, al-Khiţaţ, vol. ii, p. 178).

appoint his son Abū al-'Alā as his substitute. This favor was denied and after three days' he was deposed and the sole cadiship was given to Ali. It seems, however, that Ali's power was at that time not quite complete. The friends and patrons of Abū Tāhir interceded for him, and he continued his functions in his own house, perhaps revising the judgments given in other courts. Ali was now publicly invested in the two mosques; in that of old Cairo it was his own brother Mohammed who read out his diploma. His appointment was complete not only over all Egypt, but over those countries also subject to the Egyptian Caliph. In addition he was appointed chief preacher, inspector of gold and silver, and controller of weights and measures. Ali, himself, soon needed assistance. His brother Mohammed was appointed to be his deputy in Tinnis, Damietta and Farama: while a second deputy was added in the person of al-Hasan ibn Halīl. The latter was a follower of al-Shāfi'ī; but a special order was given him to decide according to the Shī'a rite.2

In the year 367° the caliph al-'Azīz was called to Syria to quell the revolt of the Carmathians, whom his lieutenant, Jauhar, had been unable to hold in check. He took his cadi, Ali, with him, and Ali's brother Mohammed was appointed his substitute during his absence. Some enemies spread the report that he had in reality been superseded; and from where he was with the army he was forced to send word to the prefect of police, Ḥasan ibn al-Ḥāsim, asking him to deny the rumor and to strengthen the hand of his brother. Ali was upon very friendly terms not only with al-'Azīz, but also with his vizier, Jacob ibn Killis. It is said that he was the first to bear the title "Chief Cadi" in his diploma.' Before his time the title had been granted only to the cadi at Bagdad. Ali died on

¹ Ibn Khallikan has "two days."

² See supra, p. 218, note 2.

Not 368, as Ibn Ḥajar has. See Wüstenfeld, Fatimiden Califen, p. 188-9; de Goeje, Mémoire zur les Carmathes du Bahraïn (Leiden, 1886), p. 192.

للاية،, vol. ii, p. 101. He seems to have been recognized as chief cadi, though the title was not given to him in his diploma. According to Ibn Khallikān (vol. iv, p. 273), the celebrated Abū Yūsuf Ya'kūb al-Anṣārī, the author of the Kitāb al-Kharāj, was the first to have the title قاضي القضاء.

Rajab the 6, 374 (Dec. 3, 984). Al-'Azīz, who was in camp at al-Jubb, a plain near Cairo, where all sorts of assemblies popular and military were held, came to the city, and himself said the prayers over the corpse, which was then buried in the Hamrā. He was a well educated man, learned in jurisprudence, philology, polite literature and poetry. In fact, he was something of a poet himself, and a few of his verses are cited by al-Tha'ālibī in his Yatīmat al-Dahr, by Abū al-Ḥasan al-Bakharzī, and by Ibn Zūlāk.

Ali's brother, Abū 'Abdallāh Muhammad, who had acted as his substitute while he was in Syria, was formally appointed cadi on Friday, Rajab 22, 374—the office having been vacant for 17 days on account of the sickness of the new cadi. Born in the Maghrib, various stories are told that as a boy he had been singled out by Al-Mu'izz for the position that he now occupied. He must have been a man of some abilities to have held so important a post. He was constitutionally weak-bodied and was compelled to ride about in a palanquin. In this manner he was carried to the camp of al-'Azīz for investiture; and he was even unable to be present when his son 'Abd al-'Azīz read out his diploma in the Jāmi' al-'Atīk at Fostāt. In this diploma he was appointed chief cadi over the whole of Egypt and the Syrian possessions of the Fatimides; he was also leader in prayer, inspector of gold and silver, and controller of weights and measures as his brother had been. Not being able to attend to all his duties, he devolved some of them upon his nephew, Abū 'Abdallāh al-Husain ibn 'Alī, who was to hear cases in the Jāmi' al-Hākimī. At the suggestion of the caliph himself, he appointed his son, Abū al-Kāsim 'Abd al-'Azīz to be his representative in Alexandria. He stood high in favor with the government; his son, 'Abd al-'Aziz being married to the daughter of

¹ Really Jubb 'Amīra, Yākūt, vol. ii, p. 18,4: وجبّ عميرة قريب من is mentioned by القاهرة يبرز اليه الحاجّ والعساكر al-Maķrīzī. Seb de Sacy, l. c., vol. i, p. 187.

⁹ Yākūt, vol. ii, p. 383, 3 says simply والحمراء ايضا بفسطاط مصر 18 It is remarkable that Ibn Hajar has nothing to say about his literary

attainments.

4 Brockelmann, l. c., vol. i, p. 252.

Jauhar the Kā'id, at a levee held by the caliph himself (Friday, Jumāda 1, 375 = September 19, 985). It is even related that upon one occasion (Jan. 5, 996) he accompanied the caliph into the pulpit; and when al-'Azīz died in 386 A. H. (996) Muhammad had the honor of washing his corpse.1 This naturally excited the jealousy of the vizier Ibn Killis, who was afraid of the growing power of the al-Nu'man family. Muhammad, however, succeeded in maintaining his position even under al-Hakim, the successor of al-'Azīz; being high in the favor of the cunuch Barjawan, the tutor of the young prince. He was also quite intent to advance his own immediate family. In Jumada 1, 377 (Sept. 7, 987) he removed his nephew Abū 'Abdallāh, to whom he had given over some of his functions, and placed in his stead his own son, 'Abd al-'Azīz, giving him authority to act as judge on Mondays and Thursdays. In Muharram 383 (Feb. 993), he increased the authority of 'Abd al-'Azīz by allowing his son to sit as judge on every day.

This power of the cadi was distasteful also to the theologians and the jurists; for he forced people to address him with the title "". "Our lord." Ibn Hajar seems to refer to some such dispute that occurred in the year 382. Muhammad had appointed a certain Ja'far to publish the religious enactments in the Jāmi' according to the Meccan rite. To this the Fakihs objected; but their objection was overruled in a summary manner.

On account of his physical weakness he was unable to attend to much of his work during his latter years. He is said to have been of fine appearance, noble in his bearing and a ready giver of alms. Ibn Zūlāķ pays him the compliment of saying that he knew of no cadi, either in Egypt or in 'Irāķ, who could be called his equal. Though learned in all the Moslem sciences,'

¹ When the Caliph al-'Azīz felt his end approaching, he recommended his son al-Ḥākim to Muḥammad ibn al-Nu'mān and to Abū Muḥammad al-Ḥasan ibn Ammār, the Amīr al-Daula. See Ibn Khallikān, vol. iii, p. 528.

² On the use of this title, see Van Berchem, l. c., pp. 385, 386.

³ I am not certain to what rite reference is made here—probably to that of the Zaidite sect. The Sharifs of Mecca afterwards went over to Shāfi'i practices. See Snouck-Hurgronje, Mekka, vol. ii, p. 251 f.

^{*}He lectured upon Shi'a law and doctrine. So many people crowded to hear him upon one occasion that a number were killed in the crush.

he left no work behind him; but he followed the Arabic custom of writing poetry, a verse or two of which have been handed down. Al-Musabbihī, however, did not think much of his poetic talents. He died on Tuesday evening, Safar the fourth, 389 (Jan. 25, 999), having been in office 14 years, 6 months and 10 days. Al-Hākim, himself, said the customary prayers over his body. He was buried at first in his own house and then on Ramadān the ninth (August) his corpse was transferred to the Karāfa cemetery. His palace was given to one of the friends of al-Hākim, and all his possessions were sold in order to pay the money of orphans and minors that had been deposited with him.²

For some reason no chief cadi was immediately appointed to succeed Mohammed. According to Ibn Ḥajar, who follows al-Musabbihī,³ the interregnum lasted for seventeen days; according to Ibn Khallikān for more than a month. On Ṣafar the 23,⁴ Abū 'Abdallāh al-Ḥusain, the son of 'Alī, who had held

وفى ربيع الأول سنة : Al-Makrīzī, upon the authority of al-Musabbiḥī المتعان على خمس وثمانين وثلثماثة جلس القاضى محمّد بن النعمان على كرسى بالقصر لقرأة علوم آل البيت على الرسم المعتاد المتقدّم لله ولاخية بمصر ولابية بالمغرب فمات في الزحمة احد عشر ولاخية بمصر ولابية بالمغرب فمات في الزحمة احد عشرون (or روعشرون) (al-Khiṭaṭ, vol. i, p. 390, top, and de Sacy, l. c., vol. i, p. 189).

¹ To the south of Cairo. See Yākūt, vol. iv, p. 48; al-Makrīzī, Khiṭaṭ, vol. ii, p. 443; Rieu, Supplement to the Catalogue of Arabic Mss., p. 448;

Van Berchem, l. c., p. 26.

*It was customary to deposit in the chancellerie of the cadi moneys belonging to orphans or to persons who were absent. See Mäwardi, l. c., p. الم., in the chapter headed عنى . Such moneys could not be loaned out; though this was, of course, occasionally done under pressure. Al-Makrīzī relates one such incident in the life of Saladin. In the year 590 A.H. he needed money for one of his campaigns; so he forced the cadi Zain al-Dīn to take 14,000 dīnārs that were in his keeping and give them to him. See Blochet in Revue de l'orient Latin, vol. ix, p. 76.

² He says expressly that al-Husain was nominated on Safar 27.

⁴ And not on Rabī 6, as Ibn Khallikān says—who seems to know very little about this cadi.

partial office for a time under his uncle Mohammed, was appointed cadi by the all-powerful Barjawan. His diploma read that he was appointed to act for Cairo, Fostat, Alexandria, Syria, Arabia, and the whole West.' He had been born in Mahdīyya in Dhulhijja, 353. He does not seem at first to have exercised all the functions of his office, a certain 'Umar ibn 'Abd al-'Azīz ibn Muhammad ibn al-Nu'mān having the authority over criminal cases. If this is his cousin, the Kunya "Ibn 'Umar" is wrong; perhaps it was some distant relative. A few years later, he placed Al-Husain ibn Muhammad ibn Tāhir to be judge in Old Cairo, Mālik ibn Sa'īd al-Fāriķī in New Cairo, and his brother, who is called simply al-Nu'man, in Alexandria. It is not apparent why he should in this manner have delegated to others so many of his functions.2 But he was evidently harsh in his judgment, for in Safar 391 (1000), or 393 (1002), he was treacherously attacked and wounded in the Jami' by a Spaniard, so that in future he had to be protected by a body guard. In spite of this, he seems to have been well in the favor of the caliph al-Hākim, who gave him a house near to the Khalīj al-Hākimi. He was the first Fatimide cadi to be appointed chief preacher; in addition, he was inspector of the mint and chief secretary. It was his own harshness of manner that caused his downfall. A man who brought a case before him had been wanting in due respect. At the order of the cadi the man was bastinadoed with 1800 strokes so that he died, and al-Hākim commenced gradually to shear him of his prerogatives. According to Ibrāhīm Ibn al-Rakīk, it was his lust for money that really caused his downfall.

¹ In the diploma of Muḥammad ibn al-Nu'mān nothing had been said about the Maghrib. It is, however, mentioned in that of 'Alī. Of course, a cadi could exercise his functions only over the districts mentioned in his diploma. See Tornauw, Le Droit Musulman, p. 243. Al-Husain was the first to have the title قاضي given to him officially. He was also leader in prayer and surveiller of the markets. Al-Kalkashandi (I. c., p. 184) says: "at times the Egyptian provinces, the districts of Syria and the lands in the Maghrib were joined together under the jurisdiction of one cadi, and only one diploma was given him."

² Though this was clearly within the rights of a cadi.

³ According to al-Musabbihi. In Safar 13 he is reported to have said the prayers over the body of the vizier Ja'far ibn al-Furāt. Ibn Khallikān, vol. i, p. 821.

⁴ Khitat, vol. i, p. 71.

In Rajab 393 (1003), though al-Husain was confirmed in his office, his cousin 'Abd al-'Azīz was permitted to take testimony and to act as referee. This divided authority occasioned much difficulty for litigants. His continued haughtiness and harshness eventually robbed him of the caliph's confidence, and he was finally removed from office on Ramadān 16, 394 (July 7, 1004). On Muharram 6, 394, he was imprisoned by the order of al-Hākim, and, together with two others, was beheaded at the beginning of 395. The bodies of all three were then burned.

The place of al-Husain was taken by Abū al-Kāsim 'Abd al-'Azīz, who was invested cadi Ramadān the 16, 394.1 He had already held office under or together with his cousin al-Husain. It is expressly stated that he combined in his person all the offices of cadi, even that of hearing complaints.2 He seems to

¹ Born Rabi 1, 354 (=March 7, 965) or 355. The authorities disagree. This office seems to have been in some man- النظر في المظالم ner similar to our court of appeal. Cases were also brought before the official holder of the appointment which could not, for one reason or another, be settled in the ordinary procedure. " مظالم torts, est un terme technique désignant les actes injustes et dommageables que les magistrats ordinaires se trouvent impuissants à réprimer, et dont on demande la réparation en s'adressant directement au Prince."—Léon Ostroog, El Ahkām es-Soulthānīye, Paris 1901, p. 209, note. Technically, again, the functions belonged to the vizier, though he might delegate them to a representative. Māwardī (l. c., p. 89, 3) says in this respect: ويجوزان . Al-Makrīzī is more precise . ينظر في المظالم ويستنيب فيها according to him the vizier sat as appeal judge in case he was a military man. Khifat, vol. i, p. 408, in the chapter headed: عجلس النظر في المظالم: فإن كان وزيرة صاحب سيف جلس المظالم بنفسة Generally, however, the head cadi was . وقبالته قاضي القضاة appointed by the caliph to hear such appeals, or an officer was especially designated for the purpose (see, also, ibid. vol. ii, p. 207). Ibn Khaldun, وقد كان الخلفاء من قبل يجعلون للقاضي: Mukaddamāt, p. 198: النظم في المطالم وهي وظيفة ممتزجة من سطوة السلطنة ونصفة القضاء وتحتاج الى علويد وعظيم رهبة لقمع الظالم من See also, de Sacy, l. c., notes, vol. i, p. 132; ibn Khallikan, vol. i, p. 346, note 14.

have enjoyed unwonted honors at the hands of al-Hakim, being permitted on two occasions to enter the pulpit with the caliphan honor, which, as we have seen, had also been accorded to his father. As a judge he was severe and firm. He is especially noted for his learning in the Canon law according to the Imamī rite. He was appointed to be the head of the Dar al-'Ilm. where he collected a large library; he had the care of the mosques and of the pious foundations, (wakf), and was administrator for various estates. The marriage of his sons to the daughters of the Kā'id Fadl ibn Sālih was celebrated in the Kasr itself; but al-Hākim must in his madness have found some fault with him and he was deposed on Friday, Rajab 16, 398 (March 27, 1008). That he was married to a daughter of Jauhar has already been related, It was perhaps this fact that hastened his fall. On Sha'ban 7, 398, he and al-Husain, son of Jauhar, the general in chief of the army, were ordered by al-Hākim to remain in their houses and not to show themselves in the market-places. This order was rescinded a few days afterwards, and 'Abd al-'Azīz was in office again in Safar 19, 400.1 But al-Husain and 'Abd al-Azīz evidently did not feel themselves safe, and together with the wife of 'Abd al-'Azīz they fled from Cairo. They were lured back by the crafty prince, Muharram 4, 401 (1009),2 and the chief executioner, Rashīd al-Hakīkī, with ten Turks was ordered to put them to death. Their heads were then brought to al-Hakim. This occurred in Jumada 2, 401 (Jan. 31, 1011).

Curiously enough, Ibn Khallikān asserts that with the death of 'Abd al-'Azīz' 'the office of cadi passed out of the family of al-Nu'mān;" but one more cadi was to come from the family—the son of 'Abd al-'Azīz, Abū Muhammad al-Kāsim. Perhaps he is not mentioned by Ibn Khallikān since the exact date of his death is unknown. Yet this would not excuse his distinct statement in regard to the passing of the cadiship.

After the execution of 'Abd al-'Azīz, Mālik ibn Sa'd al-Fāriķī occupied the position. He remained in office until Rabī' 2, 405 (1011), when the functions were given to Abū al-'Abbās

¹ De Sacy, Les Druses, p. CCCXXXII, says in 899.

Al-Makrīzī in de Sacy, L. c., vol. i, p. 61. See, also, Ibn Khallikān, vol. i, pp. 253, 345. Even the position of الناظر في المظالم was again given to him.

Ahmad ibn Muhammad ibn 'Abdallāh ibn Abī-l-'Awwām, who held office until his death in Rabī', 418 (1027). Al-Siyūtī affirms that al-Kāsim was appointed immediately upon the death of Abū-al-'Awwam ; but Ibn Hajar dates his first appointment from Jumada 1. There may, therefore, have been another interregnum. In spite of the high-sounding titles attached to his name in the diploma, he lasted only a little over a year, ' being succeeded by the son of Mālik, 'Abd-al-Hākim ibn Sa'īd. 'Abd-al-Hākim was in turn deposed in Dhulka'da 427 (1036); and our Kasim again returned to power, having jurisdiction over both civil and criminal cases, and being at the same time chief preacher. He had as assistant the historian Abu 'Abdallah Muhammad ibn Salama al-Kuda'i.' This second term of al-Kāsim lasted thirteen years, one month, and four days until Muharram, 441 (1049); but the historians do not speak with admiration of the manner in which he held his office. For short periods even he seems to have been replaced; at one time by Yahyā al-Shihābī, at another by al-Kudā'ī. He was followed in 441 by Abū-Muhammad ibn 'Alī ibn 'Abd al-Rahmān al-Yāzūrī, who was in power for seven years and was the first to unite in his person the offices of vizier and cadi." The further history of al-Kāsim is unknown, and with him the glory seems to have departed from the family of al-Nu'man.

From the biographical data given in the texts, the following genealogical tree may be constructed:

¹ Ibn Ḥajar says: "one year, two months, and some days." Paris Ms. 1850 has "three months and a half."

³ Al-Siyūtī has 329! .

² Brockelmann, l. c., vol. i, p. 343.

^{&#}x27;4 Ibn Taghri Birdī (Abu-l-Maḥāsin), in his annals for the year 486 mentions the death of the Damascus cadi Muḥsin ibn Muḥammad ibn al-Abbās, who was the nā'ib of al-Ķāsim ibn al-Nu'mān for that city. Dr. Wm. Popper, who is preparing an edition of the latter part of Ibn Taghri Birdî's work, has been kind enough to give me this information.

See al-Ghumrī, below. The name occurs quite often in Mss. misspelled بازوري

Hayyun
Ahmad
I
Mansur
I
Muhammad
I
Abu Hanifa al-Nu'mān

Abû al-Ḥusain 'Alī Abû 'Abdallāh al-Husain Abū 'Abdallāh Muḥammad Abū al-Ķāsim 'Abd al-'Azīz m. daughter of Jauhar al-Ķā'id Abū Muḥammad al-Ķāsim Muḥammad

III. THE ARABIC TEXT OF IBN HAJAR FROM THE PARIS Ms. No. 2149.

الاسماعيليّ المغربيّ يكنى ابا حنيفة تقدّم نسبة في ترجمة الاسماعيليّ المغربيّ يكنى ابا حنيفة تقدّم نسبة في ترجمة ولدة على. وكان قدومة صحبة المعرّ من المغرب وهو يتولّى القضاء في عسكم المعرّ فاقرّ المعرّ ابا الطاهر على حالة واوّل ما فرض للنعمان الحكم في الضيعة التي كان محمّد بن علىّ المادرايّ ' قرض للنعمان الحكم في المصادرة فاشتراها منه عمر بن الحسن حسّنها في باعها في المصادرة فاشتراها منه عمر بن الحسن العباسيّ ثمّ باعها اولادة فاشتراها فرج التحكميّ فاثبت احمد بن ابراهيم بن حماد بتحبيسها ثم أتصل بالخصيبي فحكم

Read الماذراء , and see Yākūt, vol. iv, p. 381.

² Ms. Paris 5893 has the better reading Laura.

بانها حبس . ثم اتصل ذلك بابي الطاهر فاحصى ذلك فتظلّم فرج التحكميّ الى المعرّ فامر النعمان بن محمّد ان ينظر في امرها فاتصل به اشهاد ابي طاهر بجميع ما في الكتاب اي كتاب التحبيس فشهد عنده الحسين بن كهمش وعبد العزيز بن اعين ة على اشهاد ابع طاهم بمما ذكم فعاجلت النعمان المنية قبل اكمال القضية. وكانت وفاته في [??] وكان يسكن مصر ويغده منها الى القاهرة في كلّ يوم واستمرّ ابو الطاهر على حاله ولكن اضاف اليد المعزّ على بن النعمان وكان يحكم بالجامع العتيق ايضًا [ثم اً] بعد مَوْت المعرِّ وتولَّى العزيز ردّ امر دار الضرب والجامع لعليَّ 10 بن النعمان بن محمّد فحضر الجامع وحكم وحضر ابو الطاهر في عجلسه على العادة وحكم وحضر معه جمع كثير من الشهود والفقهاء والتجار واعلنوا بالدعاء لابي الطاهم [فاحضروا متولّع لشرطة الذين اعلنوا بالدعا لابي الطاهر"]. فالمجنهم فشفع فيهم على بن النعمان فاطلقوا وواصل ابو الطاهر الجلوس 15 بالجامع . ولم يزل امرة مستقيما الى ان حصلت لـ وطوبة عطلت شقّه فعجز عن الحركة الآ محمولاً. فركب العزيز الومّا في مستهل صفر سنة ستين وثلثمائة فتلقاه ابو الطاهر وهو محمول

¹ Mss. Paris 5893, 2152.

¹ Mss. Paris 5898, 2152.

[&]quot; Read !!

عند باب الضيافة فسأله ان يأذن له في المجهلات ولده ابي العلاء بن ابي الطاهر نيابة عنه بسبب ما به من الضعف. فقال المعبر ما بقى الآ ان تقدّدوه ثمّ في ثالث يوم صرف ابا الطاهر وقلّد على بن النعمان كما سبق في ترجمته.

fol. 85a. على بن النعمان الاسماعيلي

على بن النعمان بن محمّد بن منصور بن احمد بن حيّون المغربيّ القيروانيّ الاسماعيليّ من الماثة الرابعة وُلِدَ في رجب سنة ثمان وعشرين وثلاثماثة وقدم مع المعزّمن المغرب فامرة بالنظر في الحكم. فكان يحكم هو وابو الطاهر والشهود يشهدون عليهم جميعًا وعندهما والاجتماع عند ابي الطاهر. 10 فلمّا مات المعزّرة امر الجامعين ودار الضرب لعلىّ بن النعمان فلمّا مات المعزّرة امر الجامعين ودار الضرب لعلىّ بن النعمان وعزل جماعة ثمّ عرض له الفالج ففوض المعزّ الحكم في الجامع على بن النعمان وغرّل جماعة ثمّ عرض له الفالج ففوض المعزّ الحكم الى ابي وغلّ بن النعمان وذلك لليلتين خلتا من صفر سنة ست وستين وثلاثماثة . فركب الى الجامع الازهم في جمع كثير وعلية خلعة 15 مقلّداً سيفاً وبين يدية خلع في مناديل عدّتها سبعة عشر مقلّداً سيفاً وبين يدية خلع في مناديل عدّتها سبعة عشر

¹ Reading of Ms. Paris 2152, Ms. Berlin 9819. Ms. Paris 5898 has الجماعة; Ms. 2149 توالياعة وعدالياء .

as Ms. Berlin 9819.

وقرى سجلَّه بالجامع وهو قائم على قدميه فكلَّما مر ذكر المعزّ او احد من اهله اومي بالمجود. ثم توجّه الى الجامع العتيق بمصر فوجد الخطيب عبد السميع ينتظره بالجامع وقد كان الوقت ان يخرج فصلَّى الجمعة وقرى اخوه تحمَّد عهده وفيه انَّه 5 ولَّى القضاء عملى مصر واعمالها والخطابة والامامة والقيام في الذهب والفضّة والموازين والمكاييل. ثمّ انصرف الى داره فركب اليه جماعة الشهود والاضاء والتجّار ووجوه البلد ولم يتأخّر عنه احد وكان في سجلَّم اذا دعى احد الخصمين اليك ودعى الاخر الى غيرك ردّا جميعاً اليك فعرف انّ ذلك اشارة الى منع ابي الطاهر 10 فامتنع من يومئذ حين بلغه . فلمّا كان اليوم الثالث من ولايته ركب على بن النعمان الى الجامع العتيق وبين يديه سلَّة حمراء وجلس في مجلس الصفّ عند حلقة الزوال وركب معه الشهود والإضاء والفقهاء والتجار فكان الجمع وافرًا جدًّا فنظم بين الناس ودعا بالوكلاء وقرأ عليهم سورة العصر وحضّهم على تقوى الله. 15 ثمّ طلب الشهود وسأل عن القاضى ابي الطاهم فقال له الحسين بن كهمش وكان وجه الشهود حينتُذ هو على حالة فقال ينظر ف الحكم · في دارة دون الجلوس في الجامع فبلغ ذلك ابا الطاهر فصرف الوكلاء وانقطع عن الحكم وعنى بعض اهل البلد بابي

الظاهر فتنجّل له توقيعًا بان ينظم في الحكم على حاله وجمع الشهود وقرى عليهم فبلغ ذلك ابا الطاهر فامتنع . وقال ما افعل ولا بي طاقة. فقال له الحسين بن كهمش جاز [م] الله القاضي وسكّت على بن النعمان [عن طلب ديوان الحكم فلم يسأل عنه ولا طلبه حسن عشرة وجميل فعل. ولمّا امتنع ابو الطاهرة انبسطت يد على بن النعمان] في الاحكام. واستخلف على اخاه محمدا والحسن بن خليل الفقية الشافعيّ وشرط عليه ان يحكم بمذهب الاسماعيليّة لا بمذهب الشافعيّ وكان يحكم اذا اشتغل محمد. واستخلف على اخاه محمدا على تنيس ودمياط والفرما وغيرها نخسرج اليها وقرّر فيها نوّابًا ثم عادُوا واتخذ 10 على في دارة سجفًا . ولما سافر العزيز سنة ثمان وستين لحرب لقرامطة سافر صحبته واستخلف اخاه محمدا واشاع جماعة ان العربي [عزل] على بن النعمان وكاتب محمّد اخاه بذلك فتنجز توقيع العربية الى متولَّى الشرطة وهو حسن بين القاسم بالكشف عن ذلك . وتقدّم اليه بعدم الحوض في ذلك وتقوية يد محمّد بن النعمان . 15 وكانت الشهود يجلس في الجامع على رسم القضاة قبله في الشتاء في المقصورة وفي الصيف عند الشبّاك ثمّ وقع الابعاد أن يجلس معه

¹ Mss. Paris 5893, 2152.

² Mss. Paris 5893, 2152.

بن حشوب المغربيّ القيروانيّ نزيل [القاهرة اماميّ من المائة بن حشوب المغربيّ القيروانيّ نزيل [القاهرة اماميّ من المائة 15 الرابعة ولد في ثالث صفر سنة اربعين وثلثمائة بالمغرب وقدم أ] القاهرة صحبة والدة مع المعتز وناب عن اخيه علىّ بن النعمان في اخر امرة وولى العزيز استقلالاً

الاعمال داخلةً في ولايته.

as in Ms. Paris 5893.

² Mss. Paris 5893, 2152.

Read ; Read .

⁴ Ms. Paris 5898 839.

بعد موت اخيه في يوم الجمعة لسبع بقين من رجب سنة اربع وسبعين. وخلع عليه وقلَّد سيفًا ونول الى مصر من يومه في قبّة على بغل لعلّة كانت به . فدخل الجامع فلم يقدر على الجلوس فرجع الى دارة وجلس ولدة عبد العزيز واولاد اخوته وجماعة الشهود حتى قرى عهدة في الجامع بعد صلاة الجمعة 5 بقضاء على الديار المصريّة والاسكندريّة والحومين واجناد الشام. وفوض اليه الصلاة وعيار الفضة والذهب والموازين والمكاييل وذكر في سجلَّه ابوة واخوة واثنى عليهم. ثمَّ ارسل ابن اخيه الحسين بن على الحامع الحاكم1 للحكم بين الناس وكاتب خلفاء النواحي. فلمّا كان يوم الجمعة اوّل جمادي الاولى سنة خمس 10 وسبعين عقد لابنه عبد العزيز على بنت جوهر القائد في مجلس العرب. وكان الصداق ثلاثة الأف دينار والشاهدان محمَّد بن عبد الله العتقى وعبد الله بن محمد [بن] رجا. وخلع العزيز على الزوج وانصرف محمّد بن النعمان في جمع كثيم من الخواص ثمّ قرر ابنه عبد العزيز في نيابته وصرف ابن اخيه الحسين بن على . 15 قال المسيحي كان محمد بن النعمان خبيرًا بالاحكام حسس

¹ Delete; not in Mss. Paris 5892, 2152.

* Read السنحية.

الاديب والمعرفة بايام الناس. قال العنفي في تأريخه امر المعز وهو بالمغرب قاض بلادة النعمان بن محمّد أن يعمل له اصطرلابات فضّة وان يجلس مع الصانع بعض ثقّاته فاجلس النعمان ولدة محمّدا. فلمّا فرغ توجّه به الى المعنّز فسأله من ٥ اجلست مع الصانع. قال ولدى محمد[۱]. فقال هو قاضى مصر. قال محمّل بن النعمان كان المعرّ إذا رأني قال لوله، وإذا صبّى هذا قاضيك قال المسيحى ، وعدّل محمّد بن النعمان في ايامه نحوّا من ثلاثين نفسًا قال المسيحيُّ كان محمَّد بن النعمان خبيم النظر في الاحكام تقدّمت اليه امرأة طالبة زوجتها بحقّها فامتنع 10 من دفعه لها فسألت القاضى ان يحبسه فامر بذلك. ثمّ نظر اليها فوجدها جميلة وظهر عليها السرور. فلمّا توجه الى الحبس امر القاضى بحبسها مع زوجها فغضبت فقال لها حبسناه لحقّكِ ونحبسك لِحَقِّهِ فلمّا تحقّقت ذلك افوجت عنه فلمّا توجّهت قال القاضى رأيتها فرحت بحبسه فخشيتُ انَّها تخلو بنفسها لغيبة. * 15 قال وكان الوزيم ابن كلّس كثيم المعارضة لبنى النعمان في إحكامهم فاتَّفق انَّ الحسن بن الحسين بن على بن يحيى الدقاق روَّج

¹ Read الأدب as Ms. Paris 5893.

[.] العصى 2152 ; العتقى Ms. Paris 5893 has :

Read . . 4 Ms. Paris 5893 زوجها.

ولدة يتيمة تعرف ببنت الديباجيّ باذن محمد بن النعمان في ذلك . فقام بكر بن احمد المالكيّ احد الشهود وادّعي فساد العقد لكونها غير بالغ. وبالغ في ذلك فقال ابن النعمان ثبت عندى باقرارها انها بلغت نحملت الى القصر ورفع امرها الى العزيز وكشف عنها فوجدت غيم بالغ فقدم الى القاضي بفسم 5 النكاح فاحضر الوزيم القاضى والشهود وشهدهما وقال يتقدم مولانا بفسم هذا النكاح وبالوقوف عن قبول شهادة هولاء الشهود. ففعل وكتب بذلك سجلًا بامضاء ذلك وفيه انه ثبت عنده انها غيم بالغ. ثم بالغ الوزيم في الانكار على الشهود في التساهل وكان ذلك في سَلم جمادي الاولى سنة خمس وسبعين 10 وامر بحفظ مال الصبية ثمّ ابتاع لها منه ربعًا. ووقع الى محمّل بن النعمان أنّ نصرانيّا أسلم ثمّ ارتدّ وقد جاوز الثمانين فاستتيب فابي فانهى امرة الى العزيز فسلَّمة لوالى الشرطة. وارسل الى القاضى ان يرسل اربعة من الشهود ليستتيبوه فان تاب ضمن له عنه مائة دينار وان اصر فليقتل فعرض اليه الاسلام 15 فاتى بقتل. ثمّ اتى بتغريقه في النيل. ورفع اليه رجل من ولد عقيل بن ابي طالب زوجته ومعها ابنة لها جدها فتلطّف به

¹ Ms. Paris 5893 + معددهم .

ابن النعمان فلم يجد فيه حيلة فانهى امره الى العزيز فامره بالملاعنة بينهما وكتب في ذي القعدة سنة ثمان وسبعين الى الجامع العتيق فاجتمع الشهود ووعظ الزوج فابى الآ اللعان فلاعن بينهما ثمّ فرّق بينهما. ثمّ استخلف ولده عبد العزيز ة الحكم وكان ينظر كلّ اثنين وخميس وفي اوّل سنة احدى وثمانين عدَّل جماعة من الاشراف وفي صفر سنة اثنين وثمانين رتب رجلا جعفر بالجلوس في الجامع للفتوى على مذهب اهل البيت. فشغب عليه الفقهاء من اهل الجامع فبلغ ذلك [القاضي] فقبض على بعضهم وطوّف بثلاثة منهم على الجمال. وعلت منزلة القاضى 10 عبد العزيز وقطع النزول الى الجامع ونظم في الحكم في دارة . ولم يكن احد يخاطبه اللا بسيدنا. فلمّا توقي العزيز سكن محمّد بن النعمان في دارة بالقاهرة ورتب ابنه عبد العزيز كلِّ اثنين وخميس ينظم في الاحكام ببصر. قال أبن ذولات ما شاهدنا لقاض من القضاة بمصر ما شاهدناه لحممد بن النعمان ولا بلغنا 15 ذلك عن قاض بالعراق. وكان مع ذلك مستحقًّا لما هو فيه من العلم والصيانة والتحقّظ والهيئة واقامة الحقّ وفيه يقول ابوعبد الله السموقندي:

¹ Read وركب as Ms. Paris 5893.

² Ms. Paris 5898.

[•] Read زولات.

خطيرٌ في مفاخرة جليلُ كما يتألّف السيف الصقيلُ ويعطى والغمام له زميلُ وإن حضر المشاهِدَ فالخليلُ

قال المسيحى؛ وله نظم كثير ليس بالقوى فمن اجوده

لسبع وخمس مضت واثنتین شغلت فوادی واسهرت عینی والا انصرفت بخقی حُنین أيًا مشبّه البدر بدر السما ويا كامل الحسن في نعته فهل لى في فيك من مطمع

وحبُّه في قضاياه غريتً

تالق بهجة ومضى اعترامًا

ويقضى والسوادُ له حليفً

اذا ركب المنابي فهو قسَّ

قال وفي ولايته رجم رجلاً خبّارا اصاب امرأة علوّية من زنا. وكان رجمه بسوق الدوابّ بقرب الجامع الطولونيّ وذلك سنة اثنتين 10 وتسعين. قال ولمّا حصل له التمكّن الزائد وعلت رتبته لزمته الامراض كالنقرس والقولنج وكان اكثر ايامه عليلاً. وولده عبد العزيز ينظم في الاحكام ويسجل في دار ابيه وغيرها وكان يرجو ان يعوده في كلّ خميس مع عظمة برجوان. قال وكان فيه احسان لاتباعه مع حسن الخلق والبرّة والمركوب وكثرة الطيب 15 والبخور اذا جلس في مجلسه واذا ركب. وكان اذا اعطى عطاكثيرًا والبخور اذا جلس في مجلسه واذا ركب. وكان اذا اعطى عطاكثيرًا

¹ Read James 1

صفر سنة تسع وثمانين وثلثمائة. فركب الحاكم فصلَّى عليه في داره ودفنه تحت قبّتها ثمّ نقل بعد الى القرافة . وكانت مدّة ولايته اربع عشرة سنة وستّة اشهر وعشرة ايام. ووجد عليه من اموال اليتامي وغيرهم ستّة وثلاثون الف دينار. فامر الحاكم ة برجوان ان يحتاط على موجودة فارسل كاتبه ابا العلاء فهدا النصراني فاحتاطوا عليه وشرعوا في البيع وفي تغريم الشهود الذين كانت الودائع تحت ايديهم. فمن احضر ورقة بخطّ القاضى ترك. ومن لم يحضر خط القاضى عزم الى ان تحصل قدر نصف الدين. فدفع للمستحقين بقدر النصف. وتقدّم امر 10 الحاكم ان لا يودع بعد ذلك عند احد من الشهود مال يتيم والاغائب وافرد موضع بزقاف القناديل يوضع فيه المال ويحتم عليه اربعة من الشهود لا يفتم [الله] بحضور جميعهم فاستمرّ الامر على ذلك مدَّة. وكان محمَّد بن النعمان سلَّم لعبد الله بدن احمد بعن محمّد المدادي احدد الشهود مال يتيم واراد 15 الاشهاد عليه بذلك فامتنع فقال محمد ما كان بالذي يودع الاشهاد فاتَّفق أنَّ المداديَّ مات في سنة تسع وسبعين وعنده ودائع كثيرة فراسلة يزيد بن السندى كاتب الحكم قبل ان

¹ Ms. Paris 5893.

يموت حتى اشهد عليه بما عنده فلمّا مات لم يوجد اكثر ذلك فباع القاضى دارة بخمسة آلاف دينار فوفى بها الودائع.

fol. 40a الحسين بن على بن النعمان بن محمّد بن منصور بن احمد بين حيون بمهملة ويا اخر الحروف بمهملة مضمونة وآخرة نون المغربيّ الاسماعيليّ من المائة الرابعة ولد لليلتين بقيتا من 5 ذي الجِّة سنة ثلاث وخمسين وثلثمائة بالمهديّة. وقدم مع ابيه بالقاهرة وهو صغير تحفظ كتابا في الفقه ومهم الى ان صار من ائمة السبعة. واستحلقه عمَّه محمَّد بن النعمان بالجامع في الحكم ثم صرفه بابنه عبد العريز [بن] محمد . فلمّا مات محمد بن النعمان اقامت مصير بغير قاضي لتسعة عشر يوما [ف]استدعاه 10 برجوان بامر الحاكم فولاه القضا ووتى المظالم ابن عمّه عبد العزيز بن محمّد بن النعمان وذلك في آخر صفر او اوّل شهر بيع الأولُّ سنة تسع وثمانين وثلثمائة وحرَّرة المسبّحيّ في الثالث والعشرين من صفر. قال فقلَّه سيفاً وخلع عليه ثيابا بيضا مقطوعة ورداه برداء وعبه بعمامة مذهبين وحمله على بغلة 15 وقاد بين يديم بغلتين وحمل معم ثيابا محيحة كثيرة. وقرى عهده بولاية القضا بالقاهرة ومصم والاسكندرية والشام

¹ Mss. Paris 5898, 2152.

² Mss. Paris 5898, 2152 تسعة .

³ Ms. Paris 2152.

Vol. xxvii.] A Distinguished Family of Fatimide Cadis. 251 والحرمين والمغرب واعمال ذلك وهو قائم على قدمية . واضيفت اليه الصلاة والحسبة . فركب الى الجامع ووقف عن قبول جماعة من شهود عبّه وعدّتهم اربعة عشر [نفسا] والمسبّحيّ اسماهم . ثم قتلهم بعد مدّة شهر . واستخلف على الحكم الحسين بن محبّد و بن طاهر بمصر وبالقاهرة مالك بن سعيد الفارقيّ واقام النعمان الخاه في النظير في العباد فاضاف اليه قضا الاسكندرية وعلى الفروض احمد بن محبّد بن العوّام . والزم من ينظر في مال الفيروض احمد بن محبّد بن العوّام . والزم من ينظر في مال الايقام بعمل الحسابات . الايقام بعمل الحسابات . الايقام بعمل الحسابات . الايقام بعمل الحسابات . المنتقام بعمل الحسابات . المنتقال ا

فبينها هو في ثامن صفر سنة احدى وتسعين جالسا في المامع بمصر يقرأ عليه الفقه اقيمت الصلاة صلاة العصر فدخل فيها ان هجم عليه مغربتي اندلستي فضربه ضربين بمنجل قفّاصٍ في وجهه ورأسة فامسك الرجل فقتل وصلب. وصار من ذلك اليوم يحوسه عشرون رجلا بالسلاح. وذكر المسبّحيّ في تأريخه ذلك في حوادث سنة ثلاث وتسعين في ثاني الحرّم، واقام القاضي ذلك في حوادث سنة ثلاث وتسعين في ثاني الحرّم، واقام القاضي الى ان اندمل جرحه فركب الى الحاكم فخلع عليه وحمله على بهلة وقاد بين يديه اخرى، وان الحسين هذا جرح وهو راكع

¹ Ms.

On margin احاة النعمان; in Ms. 2152 as a correction in the author's hand.

المعيار Ms. Paris 5898 . المعيار Ms. Paris 5898 . الحسبانات

في صلاة العصر. وكان اذا صلّى بصفّ خلفه الحرس بالسيوف حتّى يفرغ فيصلّون هم حينتُذ.

قال المسبّحيّ وهو أول قاضى فعل معد ذلك. وكان الحاكم قد امر ان يضعف للحسين ارزاق عبد وصلاته واقطاعاته وشرط عليه أن يتعرّض من أموال الرعيّة للدرهم فما فوقه. وخلع 5 عليه وقلده سيفا وحمله على بغلة ونوض اليه الحكم بجميع المملكة وكذلك الخطابة والامامة بالمساجد الجامعة والنظر عليها وعلى غيرها من المساجد وولَّه مشارفة دار الضرب والدعوة وقرأة الحجالس بالعصر وكتابتها. وهو اول من اضيفت اليه الدعوة من قضاة العبيديين. وكان الناس يطنّون انّه لا يتولّى القضا 10 لضعف حاله وان الولاية انما هي لعبد العزيز بن محمد [ابن] عمّة لما كان ابوة قدّمة في الحكم في حياته رهذبه ودربة. ثم رفع جماعة من الناس ان لهم ودائع مودّعة في الديوان الحكميّ فاحضر القاضى ابن عبّه عبد العزيز بن محبّد بن النعمان وكاتب عمَّه ابا طاهر بن المسنديّ وسألهما عن ذلك. فذكر انّ 15 عبه تصرّف في ذلك كلّه على سبيل القرض. فانكم عليهما ذلك واشتدّ في المطالبة وولّى استرفاع حسابهم فهد بن ابراهيم النصراني كاتب برجوان [فوكّل بهم]". وفتش عليهم والزم عبد

¹ Ms. Paris 2152.

² Ms. Paris 5893.

العزيز بن محمّد ان يسبع الدعوى والبيّنة مع استمرار الحسين على وظائفه. فرتّب عبد العزيز له شهودا يحضرون مجلسه وشرط عليهم ان لا يحضروا مجلس ابن عمّه فبقى الناس في

¹ Ms. الشرط .

امر مريح. فمن رفع قصة الى الحسين رفع عزيمة قصة الى عبد العزيز واذا حضر عبد العزيز الى الجامع تخلو دار الحسين فكثر الكلام فى ذلك والخوض فية أ. فكتب الحاكم بخطّة سجلًا بانّة لم ياذن لغيم الحسين ان يشارك الحسين فيما فوض الية وامر بان يمنع من يسجلً على غيرة فى شيء من الاحكام [fol. 40b] وان من 5 يمنع من يسجلً على غيرة فى شيء من الاحكام [fol. 40b] وان من دعا احدا من الحصوم وكان قد سبق الى الحسين ان لا يمكن احدا مند. وقرى هذا السجلٌ على الملاً وانشرح خاطم القاضى بذلك. ولم يزل على جلالته حتى افرط فى سجاورة الحدّ فى التعاظم. والزم الشهود بحضور سجلسة فى دارة وبالجامع ومن غاب منهم والزم الشهود بحضور سجلسة فى دارة وبالجامع ومن غاب منهم لزمة جعل حيّد يوخذ منه. وكان يتتبّع قرأة من يسجلٌ علية 10 عندة قبل ان يشهد به على نفسة.

وكان مع ذلك كثيم الافضال على اهل العلم والادب أنى الثبوت ولهم عليه جرايات من القبح والشعيم مشاهدة غيرها ويصلهم بالملابس وغيم ذلك الى ان خرج امر الحاكم بصوفه عن الحكم في شهر ومضان سنة اربع وتسعين. فلم يشعم وهو 15 بدارة حتى دخل عليه من اعلمه بان ابن عمّة عبد العزيز ولّى القضا. فانكز ذلك الى ان تحقّقه فاغلق بابه ولزم بيته واشتد

¹ Ms. Paris 5893 xic.

[.] والبيوت has في الثبوت Ms. Paris 5898 for في الثبوت

خونة الى ان كان فى السادس من الحكوم فامر الحاكم فاحضر على حمار نهارا وامر بحبسة الى اوّل سنة خمس وتسعين. فضربت عنقة هو وابو الطاهر المغازلي ومؤذّن القصر واحرقت جثّة الثلاثة عند باب الفتوح، وكان مما انكرة الحاكم قصّة الرجل الذى ضربة والى الشرطة فمات كما تقدّم.

وقد ذكم ابراهيم بن الرقيق في تاريح افريقيّة قصّة الحسين هذا مع الحاكم فقال ما نصّه وقتل الحاكم قاضيه حسين بن على النعمان فاحرقة بالنار . قالوا وكان من اسباب قتله أنّ الحاكم كان قد ملا عينه ويده وشرط عليه العقّة عن اموال الناس. 10 فرفع الى الحاكم شخص متظلم رقعة يذكر فيها انّ اباه مات وترك له عشرون الف دينار. وانها كانت في ديوان القاضي حسين وكان ينفق عليه منها مدة معلومة محضر يطلب من ماله شياً . فاعلمه القاضي انّ الذي له نفد . فاستدعى الحاكم بالقاضى فيرفع اليه الرقعة فاجابه بما قال الرجل وأنّ الذى 15 خلّفه ابوه استوفاه في نفقته . فامر الحاكم باحضار ديوان القاضي في الحال. فاحضر ففتش فيه عن مال الرجل فظهم انّه اتما وصل الى القليل منه . ووجد اكثره باتى . فعدَّد على القاضي ما رتبه واجراه عليه واكرامه اياة وما شرط عليه من عدم 1 Ms. Paris 5898 اذكر 1.

التعوض الاموال الرعية . نجذع وهاله وقال العفو واتوب . وانصوف بالرجل فدفع اليه ما له واشهد عليه . نحقد الحاكم عليه ذلك فامر به نحبس . ثم اخرج بعد ذلك على حمار ذهارا والناس ينظرون الى ان ساروا به الى المنظرة فضربت عنقه واحرقت حثّته . وكانت مدّة ولايته القضا خمس سنين وسبعة اشهر واحد تعشر يوما . قال المسبّحيّ لاعن بين رجل سكريّ وامرأته في الجامع العتيق ولم يسبق لذلك يعنى في دولة العبيديّين . قال واقطع الحاكم القاضى المذكور دارا بالقرب من الخليم الحاكمي فكان في ايام النيل يركب في [blank] الى هذه الدار ويسايره فكان في ايام النيل يركب في [blank] اللهود على دوابّهم في البرّ . ثم يركب منها الى القصر ثم يعود 10 اليها ثم يرجع الى سكنه بالدار الحمراء .

المنصور بين احمد بين محمد بن النعمان بن محمد بن المنصور بين احمد بين حمون المغربي القيرواني اسماعيلي من المائة الرابعة ولد في اوّل ربيع الاوّل سنة خمس وخمسين وثلثمائة. وكانت ولايته القضا في يوم الخميس السادس عشر من 15 رمضان سنة اربع وتسعين وثلثمائة واضيف اليه العظم في المطالم وخلعت عليه الخلع على العادة وحمل على بغلة وتيدت

¹ Ms. Paris 5893 التعرّض 1 Ms. Paris 5893. عازمي 1 Ms. Paris 5893.

بين يدية ثنتان وحمل بين يدية سفط ثياب ودخل الى الجامع فحضم فى موكب حفل وقرى تقليدة على المنبر. وكان اول احكامة انّه اوقف لجميع الشهود الذين قبلهم عبّة الحسين ما عداشرف بن محمد المقرى فانة استكتبة فى التوقيع والقصص. وكتب له فى الاسجال علية قاضى القضاة عبد العزيز قاضى عبد اللّه وولية منصور ابى على الامام الحاكم امير المؤمنين صلوات اللّه وولية منصور ابى على الامام الحاكم امير المؤمنين صلوات اللّه علية وعلى ابائه الطاهرين على القاهرة المعرّية ومصر والاسكندرية والحرمين واجناد الشام والرحبة والرقة والمغرب واعمالها وما فتحة الله وما يسم فتحة لامير المؤمنين [من واعمالها وما فتحة الله وما يسم فتحة لامير المؤمنين [من

أواستخلف عبد العزيز في الحكم مالك ابن سعيد الفارقي وابن ابي العوام في العرض ولازم الشهود الذين لم يقبلهم بابد فارسل اليهم انه قد كثر نظار حكم على ويشفعكم في قبول الشهادة فيلزم كل واحد منكم شغله فمن احتجت قبول الشهادة منكم اتعدت اليه فانصرفوا عنه.

¹ Ms. Paris 5898, 2152. At this point there follows, in the Paris Ms. 2149, a portion of Ibn Ḥajar's biography of 'Abd ar-Raḥmān ibn 'Umar al-Bulkīnī, † 824 A.H., which has been accidentally misplaced.

² The following up to p. 260, line 13, is taken from Ms. Paris 5893,

فلمّا كان في السابع عشر من ذي القعدة طلبهم واستحلفهم انهم ما كانوا سعوا في طلب الشهادة عند عبد ولا رشده ولا عدوا له تحلفوا على ذلك فقبلهم. واصعد الحاكم عبدً العزيز معه المنبر في الجمع والاعياد على عادة من تقدّمه وامتدّت يده في الاحكام وعلت منزلته وجلس في 5 الجامع وابتدأ في كتاب جدّه اختلاف اصول المذاهب. وفي ولايته فوض الحاكم اليه النظم على دار العلم التي انشأها. وكان الحاكم بناها واتقنها وجعل فيها من كتب العلوم شيأ كثيرا واباحها للفقهاء وان يجلسوا فيها بحسب اختلاف اعراضهم من نسم ومطالعة وقراءة بعد أن فرشت وعلقت 10 الستور على ابوابها ورتب فيها الخدّام والفَرَشَة. ويخصّص عبد العزيز هذا لمجالسة الحاكم ومسايرته فاحتاج القاضي الى الاذن لوله القاسم الاكبر في الحكم بالجامع. وكان يجلس فيه لسماع الاحكام والفصل بين الخصوم وصار الناس يترددون في امورهم ' منه الى ابيه ومن ابيه اليه وامر ولده 15

Above the word ", referring to the marginal note ". Does this mean "delete!"?

^{*} Ms. Paris 2152 الحام Ms. Paris 5893 عبالسة .

[.] من امورهم الى ابيه Ms. Paris 2152

الاصغر أن يثبت كتب الناس ويفصل بينهم في مجلس حكم بمنزلة. وفوض اليه الحاكم ايضا النظم في تركة ابن عمة حسين بن على بن النعمان بعد قتله. فتسلّم جميع ما وجد له. وكذا فعل في تركة ابي منصور الجوزيّ وهو من ة كبار دولته وقدّمه في الصلاة على جماعة من اوليائهم " جرت العادة بانَّه لا يصلَّى عليهم الَّا الخليفة وامره في يوم عاشورا ان يمنع النساء والناس من المرور في الشوارع. وكانت سنتهم انهم في يوم عاشورا يخرجون النساء وغيرهن للنوح والبكاء على الحسين وينشدون المواثي ف الشوارع وتمدُّ 10 الغاغة ايديهم الى امتعة الباعة. فرفعوا ذلك الى الحاكم فامر القاضى بمنعهم من المرور في الشوارع وان يختص النوح والنشيد بالصحراء. واتَّفق انَّ بعض الكتاميّين كان عنده حقّ فامتنع من ادائه وكان عندة سنة باس وتحرّفه فوفع _ امرة الى القاضى فانفل اليه رسولا فاهانه. فرفع الامر 15 للحاكم فامر باحضار الكتامي مصحوبا الي القاضي بمصر. ثم احضم الى القاهرة ماشيا والزم بالخروج ممّا عليه . وامرة الحاكم بالنظر في المساجد وبنقد اوقافها وجمع الربع وصرفة

المرابي . الدائي . اوليائيد . الجوزوي Ms. Paris 5898 . الجوزوي Ms. Paris 5898 . . .

في وجوهم ففعل ذلك وبالغ فيم وافرد لذلك شاهدين يضبطانه . وزرج القاضى ولديه بابنتي القائد فضل بن صالح وكان الاملاك بالقصر على صداف اربعة الاف دينار انعم الحاكم بها من بيت المال. فخلع عليهما أ ثوبان مفصّلات وستّة عشر قطعة من الثياب الملفوفة وحملا على بغلتين 5 مسروجتين وقيد بين يديهما مثل ذلك . ويصلب القاضي في احكامه وارتفعت كلمته ويفرّز على المولة. وتقدّم الى جميع الشهود انّ من يخلو عن البكرة الى حضور المجلس كلّ اثنين وخميس الزم بمغرم ثقيل. وسأله خليفته ف الحكم مالك بن سعيد ان يستخلف الخليل بن الحسن 10 بن الخليل عنه اذ اطرفه امر يمنعه عن الركوب او التوجّه الى مجلس الحكم. فاذن له ولم يعهد ذلك لغيرة انّ الناتب يستنيب عنه في المدينة . وذكر المسبّحيّ في تـأريخه في حوادث سنة سبع وتسعين وثلثهائه ما حاصله ان على ابن وسليمان المنجّم وكان من خواص قائد القواد الحسين 15

[.] عليها 5893 ; فتخلع عليهما معصلات 5893 ; تعليها 1 Ms. Paris

على ا Ms. Paris 5898 .

³ Ms. Paris 2152 & .

⁴ Ms. Paris 5893 xeic .

⁵ From here on the text is from Ms. Paris 2149, compared with 5893 and 2152.

[.] اسماعيل ابن المنجم The reading of 5898 and 2152; Ms. 2149 has

[.] بن حسين 149 Ms. 2149

ابن جوهم اخبره أنّ القاضي زار الحسين بن جوهم القائد في دارة أ[ف] يوم احد من صيام النصاري وكان عندة أبو الحسن الرسيّ والمنجّم ومن يخدمهم فدخل الغلام فقال ابو يعقوب بن قسطاس الطبيب بالباب فاذن له فدخل وهم ة على المائدة فاظهم السرور به واحضم له عدّة الوان ثمّ رفعت الماثلة وقدم الشراب وما يلائمه من الفاكهة والمشموم " فاقبلوا على عملهم الى ان سكروا. فامّا القاضى فانصرف ونام القائد والرسى واستمر ابو يعقوب الطبيب بالطارمة التى كان بناها في ذلك المكان وهي تطلُّ على نهم كبير يشرب 10 ويطرب الى ان غلب عليه السكم. فتخرج وطلب بغلته فقدمت له بغلة الرسى فامتنع من ركوبها فسأله الخدم ان يعود الى مكانه الى ان تحضر بغلته فرجع الى المكان الذى فيه الرسى فنام الى جانبه فقام احد الفرّاشين فرفع الستارة يتفقدها. فراى الرسى فلم يم ابا يعقوب فدخل وتطلّبه 15 فلمح طرف ثوبه في الماء فاستدعى فرَّاشا يعرف السباحة فنول الى النهم فوجهة قد التقت ثيابة على وجهة فغطس في الماء . فاعلم الخدم القائد فاستدعى القاضى وانبه ' الرسيّ

[.] والمشروب Mss. 2149, 5898 . والمسبّحيّ Mss. Paris 5898 . وانتبع المسبّحيّ 1b. > ° Mss. 2149, 5898 .

وشق عليهم ذلك لعلمهم بمنزلته من الحاكم. فسألونى ان اعلم الحاكم بذلك فدخلت اليه فذكرت له ان ابا يعقوب قام من الليل وهو دهش فسقط في النهم فالى ان يصل اليه الفرّاش وجدة قد التف في ثيابه فغطس فشق عليه واظهم الاسف وبحث عن الامم فعرّفوة بصورة الحال فهرّ راسه. قفاذا بالقائد والقاضى والرسى قد وصلوا الى القصم مشاة بعمائم لطاف فاستدعاهم فحلفوا واكدوا له الايمان ان كان لهم في شانه شيء واستشهدا القائد والقاضى بالرسي فشهد لهما بالبراءة من ذلك فامم بتكفينه ودفنه. وكان ذلك في اواخم سنة سبع وتسعين.

فلما كان في يوم الحبيس النصف من شهر رجب سنة ثمان وتسعين شاع بين الناس ان عبد العزيز القاضي عزل وقرّر خليفته مالك بن سعيد فارتفع النهار ولم ينزل الى عجلس الحكم الى قرب الظهر. ثمّ نزل وحكم وصلّى للناس الظهر الى ان انصرف بمفرده من غير حاجب ولا ركابى 15 حتّى دخل دارة. فلمّا كان اخر النهار طاف جماعة على قبيع اولياء الدولة بان اجتمعوا بالقصر بكرة فحضروا

¹ Ibid عن الله عن الكان . في 152 Ms. Paris 2152 . بان 1bid . عريب

فحضم مالك بن سعيد فقلد جميع ما كان بيد عبد العزيز وكانت مددة ولايته ثلاث سنين وتسعة اشهم وثمانية وعشوين يوما.

قال المستحى عن عبد العزيز في ايام نظرة في المظالم ة تلاثة عشر نفسا وفي ايام قضائه نفريس واستمر عبد العزيز بعد عزله يتردّد الى القصر خاليا الترقب القتل الى ان كان الحادى عشم من جمادى الاخرة سنة تسع وتسعين ركب القائد حسين بن جوهر والقاضي على عادتهما فسلما وانصرفا فارسل اليهما فحضم عبده العزيز اؤلا فاعتقل 10 ورجع خادمه ببغلته واختفى القائل وولده فكسم بابه وحرَّض الحاكم على تحصيله فتعدّر عليه فامر باطلاق عبد العريز فرجع الى منزلة وقد اقاموا عليه العزاء فسكّتهم وكان الباعة قد اغلقوا حوانيتهم فامرهم بفتحها. ثمّ بعد ثلاثة ايام حضر القائد بالامان فخلع عليه وعلى عبد العزيز خلعا 15 سنية وحملت قدامهما ثياب كثيرة وحملا على فرسين وقيدت بين ايديهما عدّة خيول واعاد الحاكم النظر في المظالم الي القاضى عبد العزيز وقرئ سجله وخلع عليه خلعا مقطوعة

ا Ms. Paris 5898 عيد .

عائفا Ibid عاد .

عنال Ms. Paris 2149 فتعذل

وطیلسان و رحمل علی بغلة وبین یدیه اخری وحمل بین یدیه سفط ثیاب فاستم فی تاسع عشر صفر سنة اربع مائة. ثم قبض علی اقطاعه وضرب علی باب داره لوح باسم الدیوان و و اواخر ومضان اعرس ولدی القاضی بابنتی القائد التی تقدّم عقدهما علیها .

فلما كان اخر المحتوم سنة احدى واربع مائة استشعر القاضى والقائد من الحاكم الغدر منهما. فلمّا كان في التاسع من صفم هرب القاضى وقائد القوّاد حسين بن جوهم واتباعهما وحجبتهما جماعة ومعهما من الاموال شيء كثيم وتوجّهوا على طريق دجوة. فلمّا بلغ الحاكم ذلك ختم 10 على دورهما. وامر مالك بن سعيد الفارقيّ بالركوب الى دار القاضى وحسين وضبط ما فيها وحملة فلم يزل القاضى والقائد مستترين الى السادس من المحرم سنة احدى واربع مائة فظهرا وكتب لهما الامان من الحاكم وخلع عليهما فلازما الحدمة الى ان كان يوم الجمعة ثانى عشم جمادى والخرة منها حضرا الحدمة وانصرفا. فارسل اليهما في الحال فرجعا فقتل كلا منهما جماعة من الاتراك في الدهليز وختم فرجعا فقتل كلا منهما جماعة من الاتراك في الدهليز وختم

[.] وطيلسانا ? ¹

فى الحال على دورهما وذهب دمهم الهدرا واحيط على دورهما فى الوقت وقبض على كثير من اتباعهما وصودروا.

وكان عبد العزيز عالما بالفقة على مذهب الاماميّة كآل بيته ولا سيّما جدّة وقد نسب اليه الشيخ عماد الدين ابن ثميم الكتاب المسبّى البلاغ الاكبر والناموس الاعظم في البلاغ الاكبر والناموس الاعظم في البلاغ الاكبر والناموس الاعظم في البلاغ الدين ووهم في ذلك وانبّا هو تصنيف ابيه على والدة النعمان. قال ابن كثير وقد ردّ على هذا الكتاب القاضى ابو بكم الباقلانيّ. قال ابن كثير وفيه من الكفر ما لا يصل ابليس مثله كذا قال.

10 قاسم بن عبد العزيز بن محمد بن النعمان المغربيّ الاصل اماميّ من المائة الخامسة يكنى ابا محمد ولّى بعد ابن ابى العوّام في يوم الاحد رابع جمادى الاولى سنة ثمانى عشرة وقرى سجلّه بالقصر وبالجامع بمصر ولقب قاضى القضاة ثقة الدولة امين الاثبة شرف الاحكام وجلال الاسلام فباشرها الى امين الاثبة شرف الاحكام وجلال الاسلام فباشرها الى 15 رجب سنة وشهرين من] وجب سنة تسع عشرة وكانت مدّته سنة وشهرين وايامًا وهذه

١ ٢ دمهما

¹ Ms. Paris 5893 >.

[.] والقاموس Ibid 3

[·] Ibid sall .

⁵ Ms. Paris 5893, 2152.

الولاية الاولى. واستقر عوضه عبد الحاكم بن سعيد بن مالك الفارقي . ثم اعيد قاسم في السادس من ذي القعدة سنة سبع وعشرين فنظر في الاحكام والبطالم والدعوة واستخلف في هذه الولاية القضاعي فناب عنه في هذه الولاية الثانية . ولم يكن قاسم محمود السيرة لكنّه طالت مدّته الى ان صرف في المحرّم سنة احد واربعين واربعمائة وكانت ولايته الثانية ثلاث عشرة سنة وشهرا واربعة ايام وقد تقدّم ذكر الابيات التي هجي عشرة سنة وشهرا واربعة الفارقي . (ابو القسم) بن محمد بن المنعمان هو وابن عبد الحاكم الفارقي . (ابو القسم) بن محمد بن النعمان هو ابن عبد العزيز المذكور قبله .

V. THE ARABIC TEXT OF AHMAD IBN SA'D AL-GHUMRI FROM THE PARIS Ms. No. 1850, fol. 201b.

قضأة الدولة العبيديّة.

العبيدية.
العبيدية.
المصر بالقضاة كلّ زميد من بعد ثلاثمائة معيّنة وحكموا قضاتها الشيعيّة يدعونه قاضى القضاة المصريّ او شافعيّ في حكمه لم يحف 15 أولها فالمالكيّ في قضاة ورابع اسماعيليّ للاحكام

فی حکمة دخلت بنو عبید
عام ثمان بعد خمسین سنة
وابطلوا قضاتها السنّیّة
وکان قاضی واحد بمصر
مجتهدا او مالکی او حنفی
جعلوا بمصر اربعا من القضاة
ثانی نصیری ثالث امامیّ

سبعون مذهب الى دولتهم منهم على ولد النعمان وخمسة الاشهر في المروى وثلثى العام بمصر ذو سعة خالف السنة والتاويل خمسة اعوام ونصفا ابتلى وجسمه حرق بنار تشتعل بمصر والجسم لنار يُصلَى اربعة ايام وشهر الاعزيز خوفا ومنها صار دمه منبجس مكان للمودع فيه اقعدا سبع سنین دون سدس قد بقی سبًّا لاححاب النبتّي المجتبى والسوق والخانات والمجامع ولعنة الله لمن يبغضهم وضوبه وعنقه فسورا ضبوب على القضا لانه صاحبه

اوِّل من جلس في مصر القضاة اربعةً كلِّ دعى قاضي القضاة ودولة القضآء من شيعتهم اول قضا قضاة مصر داني ثماني السنين للشيعتي ي محمد احود اعوام اربعة وكان دا مذهب استاعيلي وابن اخى الحسين هو ابن لعلى بالضوب والتجرير في مصر قتل وكان ذا أوَّل قاضي قتلا 10 تولى ابو القاسم هو عبد العزيز ازل قاض بالسيوف قد حرس واول القضاة في مصر افردا ومالك بن سعيد لهو الفارقيّ ذا امره الحاكم قال اكتُبا 15 محمد في سائر الجوامع فقام قد كتب الترضي عنهم اذا بلغ الحاكم ذا له صلب وقتل معد حمزة نائبه

تلاث عشر عام فيه سامى ولم يتخافوا اذ عبولوة لوما ثلاثة اشهر ونصفا حاكم تسعة اعرام وربعا وانقصم وبعده من القضاه قاماة عشرة اعوام وسدسا للمهاب كذا امير الامراء داعى الدعاة والامراء يسمعون قوله اقام عامه بلا نزاع اقام عاما ذاهبا بالباعثة 10 خلع وبالسيف فغلقوا هامه قاضى وزير سبعة اعوام حسن مع القضا بمصر للاشارة اول قاضي جُهِعا اليه بمصر فی دمد فصار منجدل 15

ولَّى احمد ابن محمَّد العوّام تنقص منها اربعون يوما وابن عبد العزيز قاسم وابن سعيد الفارقي عبد الحكم عاد له قاسم تمّ عاما ونجل يحيى واسمه يحيا الشهابي وزيد في القابه قاضي القضاة بل شرف الحكام ثقة الدولة محمّد ابن سلامة القضاعيّ عاد له قاسم وهي الثالث وكان ليس ضابطا احكامه محمد اليزورى وهو ابو الحسن اول قاضى قد ولى الوزارة بها وبالقضاء اخلعوا عليه واول القضاة والوزر اقتل

III. THE TEXT OF IBN HAJAR IN TRANSLATION.

[p. 238] Al-Nu'mān ibn Muhammad ibn Mansūr ibn Ahmad ibn Hayyūn' al-Ismā'īlī al-Maghribī, called Abū Ḥanīfa. genealogy has been given in the account of his son 'Alī. came to Egypt in company with Al-Mu'izz from the Maghrib. He acted as eadi in the army of al-Mu'izz; but the latter allowed Abū Tāhir to remain in his position. The first appointment given to al-Nu'man was to pronounce judgment in the case of the domain which Muhammad ibn 'Alī al-Mādharā'ī had made a wakf. This he had sold to pay a debt, and 'Umar ibn al-Hasan al-'Abbasī had bought it. The sons of this one then sold it to Faraj al-Hakamī. Ahmad ibn Ibrāhīm ibn Hammād asserted that it was wakf. The matter came before al-Khasībī, who adjudged the property to be a wakf, [p. 239, 1.] This judgment was then brought to Abū Tāhir, who ratified it; but Faraj al-Hakami' appealed (from the judgment) to al-Mu'izz, who commanded al-Nu'man ibn Muhammad to look into the matter. Al-Nu'man caused the testimony that had been given to Abu Tahir to be laid before him according to the contents of the book, i. e. the book containing the wakfs. Al-Husain ibn Kahmash and 'Abd al-'Azīz ibn A'yan testified to the statements made before Abū Tāhir and mentioned above. Death, however, overtook al-Nu'man before the case could be finished. He died on the He lived in Misr, but went every morning from there to al-Kāhira.

Abū Ṭāhir remained in his position; but al-Mu'izz gave him as assistant 'Alī ibn al-Nu'mān, who rendered judgment in the Jāmi' al-'Atīķ' also after the death of al-Mu'izz. Al-'Azīz gave 'Alī ibn al-Nu'mān ibn Muhammad jurisdiction over the mint

¹ Not Ḥayyan, as Brockelmann, l. c., vol. i, p. 187, has.

² It was customary for the cadi to accompany an army in order to decide any case that might arise; see, e. g., al-Makrīzī in Blochet, *Rev. de l'Or. Latin*, vol. ix, p. 138.

³ The Mss. have الحكمة ; I have ventured to read إلكامة ; al-Dhahabī, Al-Tanbīh, p. 188.

⁴ Mss. 2149 and 5893 have here a sign that looks like the Arabic numeral II ; but it may merely indicate a blank in the original. Ms. 2152 has, in fact, such a blank space. Ibn Khallikān says "the first of Rajab."

I. e., the mosque of 'Amr ibn al-'Asī, the oldest one in Fusţāţ.

and the mosque.1 Thereupon he came to the mosque and decided cases. Abū Tāhir was present in his own majlis and gave judgment there as was his custom. Many notaries, lawyers and merchants were there also who brought their cases before Abū Tähir. These were conducted to the chief of police, who imprisoned them. 'Alī ibn al-Nu'mān interceded for them and they were allowed to go free. Abū Tāhir continued the custom of sitting in the mosque; his health was good until he took cold and his side was lamed; he became also too weak to move around unless carried. One day at the beginning of Safar 366 al-'Azīz was out riding, and Abū Tāhir, having been carried [p. 240, 1] near to the Bab al-Diyafa, met him. Abu Tahir asked al-'Azīz to give his own son Abū al-'Alā al-Tāhir permission to act as his substitute, on account of his own weakness. But al-Mu'izz2 answered: "There is nothing left but to dismiss him." Three days afterwards he deposed Abū Tāhir and appointed 'Alī ibn al-Nu'mān, as is related in the history of that man.

'Alī ibn al-Nu'mān, ibn Muhammad ibn Mansūr ibn Ahmad ibn Hayyūn al-Maghribī al-Kairuānī al-Ismā'īlī, of the 4th century, was born in Rajab 328, and came with al-Mu'izz from al-Maghrib, and was ordered by him to preside as judge. He and Abū Tāhir acted in that capacity, the witnesses testifying before both; but the confrontation of the witnesses took place before Abū Tāhir. When al-Mu'izz died, the jurisdiction over the mint and over the two mosques was given to 'Alī ibn al-Nu'-mān. He came to the Jāmi' al-'Atīk, and held judgment there. But Abū Tāhir continued to hold court in the Jāmi' and he discharged some men.' However, he became partially lamed, and

¹ This ought probably to be "the two mosques"—as was the case with his son 'Alī, and as Ibn Khallikān says.

² All the texts have "al-Mu'izz." It must be "al-'Azīz." De Slane translates "to make cat's meat of." See his note to Ibn Khallikān, vol. iii, p. 573.

[°] I imagine that this is the meaning of the phrase وعندهما والاجتماع

^{&#}x27;This might be the translation of the reading in Ms. 2149. Another possibility is the reading خمال الجماعة "and to arbitrate [in] the assembly."

al-Mu'izz turned over the (whole) office to Abū' 'Alī ibn al-Nu'man, two days before the end of Safar 366. Abū' 'Alī then rode together with a large multitude to the Jami' al-Azhar, being clothed with the robe of office." He was invested with the sword, and before him were placed robes in covers to the number of seventeen. [p. 241, 1] His patent was read in the jami' while he stood upright. Whenever the name of al-Mu'izz was mentioned, or the name of one of his family, he gave a sign that all should bow low.4 Then he went to the Jami' al-'Atik in Misr and found the preacher, 'Abd al-Samih, awaiting him in the jāmi'. The time had already come for him to go out. then read the Friday prayers, and his brother Muhammad published his diploma. In this, it was stated that he was appointed cadi over Egypt and its dependencies, preacher, Imam, inspector of gold and silver, of weights and measures. Whereon he returned to his house, and there came to him a multitude of notaries, claimants, merchants, and the chief men of the land. No one kept away from him. In his patent it was said : "When one of the parties to a suit brings a case before thee and the

¹ So the Mss.; delete.

² The khil'a of the cadi was made of wool, without any border; generally of white, the inside being of green (Quatremère, L. c., vol. ii, part 2, note 73). Al-Jauhar, when he came to Egypt, ordered the preachers to wear white, evidently an anti-'Abbāsid practice. See Ibn Khallikān, vol. i, p. 344; JA. 1836, 3, p. 51, Abū-l-Maḥāsin, ii, 408. The Alid colour was in reality green; but the Carmathians, also, adopted white. See de Goeje, Mémoire sur les Carmathes du Bahrein, Leiden, 1886, p. 179. These garments were part of the insignia of office, and are even called عليه Dozy, Dictionnaire des noms des vétements, p. 14. They were probably kept in the خانة الكسوف, which was a separate department in the caliph's palace. See al-Kalkashandī, l. c., p. 175. Abū Yūsuf al-Anṣārī (see p. 230, note 4) is said by Ibn Khallikān to have been the first to give a distinctive dress to the learned (Ibn Khallikān, vol. iv, p. 273).

² These numerous robes had probably no further significance; they were nothing more than presents.

[&]quot;indicavitaliquem." See Dozy, vol. ii, p. 844; de Goeje in the glossary to al-Tabarī, p. DXLVIII. Al-Hākim ordered the people to stand up at the mention of his name. Ibn Iyās, Ta'rīkh Miṣr, p. 53.

other party brings it before some one else, do thou cause the two to come to thee." He knew that this had reference to his withholding cases from Abū Tāhir. From that day he did so withhold cases from Abū Tāhir.

Upon the third day after his appointment 'Alī ibu al-Nu'mān rode to the Jāmi' al-'Atīk, with a red basket before him.' He took his station where the people were sitting in rows near the Halkat al-Zawal.2 There came to him the notaries, the officials, the lawyers and merchants-a very great multitude. He acted as judge for the people, addressed the agents, and read to them the Sura "al-'Asr" impressing upon them the fear of God. He then asked for the notaries and for the cadi, Abū Tāhir. Al-Husain ibn Kahmash, the chief notary at that time, said : "He is still in office." Ali replied, "Let him give judgments in his own house and not sit in the mosque." Abū Tāhir heard of this; he discharged the lawyers and he was practically deprived of his functions. Some people, however, interested themselves in Abū Tāhir, [p. 242, 1] and procured an edict to the effect that he might still act as judge. The notaries were collected and the edict read to them. This intended action coming to the ears of Abū Tāhir, he forbad it, saying: "What can I do? All my strength is gone." Al Husain ibn Kahmash answered him: "May God recompense the cadi." 'Alī ibn al-Nu'mān desisted from demanding the dīwān al-hikm; and did not ask or demand it further-[thus showing] his good manners and his kind actions. When Abū Tāhir desisted, 'Alī ibn al-Nu'man had a free hand in his jurisdiction.

I do not know to what this refers. Al-Shirāzī speaks of a κάμπτρα) being placed in front of the cadi, while he is holding court (al-Tanbīh, p. 815, 10; cf. 821, 5, 8). Does the text here refer to this?

الزوال عند حلقة الزوال عند عند حلقة الزوال عند المعنى عند حلقة الزوال . I am afraid that there are some technical terms here which I do not understand. خلقة may mean "the enceinte" of a building or a gathering of students around a professor who is teaching them, or even the hall where such teaching is given (see Quatremère, Histoire des sultans Mamlouks, vol. i, part 2, p. 197). الله may mean "the afternoon." "And he took his seat in the Majlis al-Ṣaff at the afternoon assembly."

³ Sura 103.

'Alī then appointed his brother Muhammad and al-Hasan ibn Khalīl the Shāfi'ite jurist; the latter with the special provision that he was to deliver judgments according to the Isma'ili rite, not according to the Shāfi'ite. This latter was accustomed to sit in judgment when Muhammad was otherwise engaged; for 'Alī had placed his brother Muhammad over Tinnīs, Damietta, Farama, etc. Muhammad went out there and appointed deputies; then they returned and 'Alī put up a curtain in his house.' Now when al-'Azīz went forth in 368 to make war upon the Carmathians," 'All went along with him, putting his brother Muhammad in his own place. Many people spread the report that al-'Azīz [had superseded him]. Muhammad thereupon wrote to his brother about the rumor. 'All at once procured an order from al-'Azīz to the chief of police, Hasan ibn al-Kāsim, that he should look into the matter; but Hasan answered allaying his fear," and reporting that the position of Muhammad ibn al-Nu'män was gaining strength.

Formerly the notaries had been accustomed to sit in the jāmi', according to the prescription of the cadis before him—in winter in the maksūra' and in summer near to the window; but the

^{&#}x27; For what purpose this is mentioned here I do not know; the meaning of نمجنف is clear. Perhaps he wished in this way to have more privacy.

³ At first, the Carmathians were used by the Fāṭimids in reducing Syria to Shī'a rule: later, the two became bitter enemies, the Carmathians making common cause with the Abbāsids at Baghdād. See de Goeje, *Mémoire*, etc., pp. 133 seq. On the victory of al-'Azīz over them in 368, see *ibid.*, p. 192.

Reading بعدم الخوف; if الخوض, "advising him not to press the

⁴ The makṣūra was a small space partitioned off by a grille and near to the minbar of the mosque, in which the ruling prince took his place to say his prayers and to hear the khuṭbah (Quatremère, Histoire des sultans Mamlouks, vol. i, part i, p. 164; vol. ii, part i, p. 288). The 'Umayyad Caliph Mu'āwiya preached from such a makṣūra (Goldziher, Muhammedanische Studien, vol. ii, p. 41). On such a makṣūra in the Azhar, see Van Berchem, l. c., p. 47. A description of the makṣūra in the mosque of 'Amr in Fosṭāṭ is given by Ibn Dukmāk كتاب الانتصار (Cairo, 1809, A.H.), part iv, p. ۹۸, below. Al-Makrīzī, in speaking of the chief cadi's procedure (al-Khiṭaṭ, vol. i, p. Vol. XXVII.

distance induced 'Alī to order that they should sit near to him, [p. 243, 1] two to his right and two to his left, and that they should thus see whatever judgment he gave. It was customary for his scribe to charge for the documents which he signed. But after 'Alī ibn al-Nu'mān had been in office for a year he grew to dislike this arrangement and forbade it. During his tenure a man apostatized. With the permission of al-Azīz, 'Alī struck off his head.

Ibn al-Nu'mān was on very friendly terms with al-'Azīz, as his father had been with al-Mu'izz—sitting with him, cating with him, riding out with him, and conversing intimately with him. The vizier, Jacob ibn Killis, opposed him and the cadi tried to ignore the vizier. This went so far that 'Alī could not give any judgment, nor appoint an assessor' to the cadi nor a deputy, without the vizier taking a hand in the matter. The cadi did away with the attendance (of litigants) in the mosque, because it enabled the vizier to decrease his power. When the vizier was put under arrest, 'Alī ibn al-Nu'mān returned to his former custom.

He was the first to have the title chief cadi over the whole of Egypt, because in his diploma it was stated that all the provinces (of Egypt) were under his jurisdiction.²

Muhammad ibn al-Nu'mān ibn Muhammad ibn Mansur ibn Ahmad ibn Ḥashūb al-Maghribī al-Kairuānī the Imāmī, of the fourth century, born on the third of Ṣafar 340 [A.H.] in the

وبين يديد خبسة من الحجاب اثنان بين يديد وبين يديد على باب المقصورة. The place in which the vizier gave audience was divided by a grille into two parts. All who had business with him assembled in the قاعة; but he sat in the maksūra, which was separated from the rest of the room by a heavy grille. This was, no doubt, done to protect his person from sudden attacks. See Ravaisse, Essai sur l'histoire et sur la typographie du Caire in the Mémoires . . . de la Mission Archéologique Française du Caire, vol. i, p. 54.

¹ On the functions of the Jose Quatremère, l. c., vol. ii, part 8, p 111; Ibn Khallikan, vol. ii, p. 367, note 5, and Dozy, vol. ii, p. 103.

³ Ms. Berlin 9819 adds five lines of poetry by him on the authority of al-Musabbihi, part of which are given by Ibn Khallikan. It adds also that he died on Rajab 6th, 374 [A. H.]

[•] of course, the proper reading here is حسوب in place of

Maghrib. He came to al-Kāhira in company of his father with al-Mu'izz. He represented his brother Alī ibn al-Nu'mān towards the end of the latter's incumbency. After the death of his brother, al-'Azīz endowed him with full powers, [p. 244, 1] on a Friday, seven days from the end of Rajab 374. He received investiture and donned the sword. On the same day he went to Misr in a palanquin, resting upon a mule because of a sickness from which he was suffering. He entered the mosque, but was unable to sit down; so he returned to his dwelling. However, his son, 'Abd al-'Azīz, the children of his brothers, and a large attendance, remained seated in the mosque until, after the usual Friday prayers, the diploma was read out appointing him cadi over the whole of Egypt, Alexandria, the two sacred places, and the provinces of Syria. He was also clothed with the functions of leading prayer, of assaying gold and silver, and of controlling weights and measures. In his diploma both his father and his brother were mentioned with praise. Then he sent his nephew al-Hasan ibn 'Alī to the jāmi' to sit there as judge and informed the lieutenants of the provinces (of this). On Friday, Jumāda 1, 375, he betrothed his son 'Abd al-'Azīz to the daughter of, Jauhar, the kā'id, in the majlis of (the caliph) al-'Azīz, The gift to the bride's parents amounted to 3,000 dinars. The two witnesses were Muhammad ibn 'Abdallāh al-'Utakī and 'Abdallāh ibn Muhammad ibn Rajā. al-'Azīz made presents to the husband, and Muhammad ibn al-Nu'man went away with a large and select assembly of his friends. His son 'Abd al-'Azīz was appointed his substitute, his nephew al-Husain ibn 'Alī being removed. Al Musabbihī says that Muhammad ibn al-Nu'man was a good judge, well educated, [p. 245, 1] and learned in history. Al-'Utakī, in his history, says while al-Mu'izz was

¹ On the kubba or palanquin, see Ibn Khallikan, vol. iii, p. 846, note 10.

² Syria was divided into five provinces (اجنان), to wit: Damascus, Emesa, Ķinnesrīn, Jordan, Palestine. See Lane, p. 470a.

³ خلفاء النواحي. On the meaning of Khalīfa (lieutenant), see the article of de Goeje referred to in Van Berchem, l. c., p. 755. Al-Shīrāzī (al-Tanbīh, p. ۳۱۳) speaks of the Khalīfa of a cadi.

⁴I have adopted the reading of Ms. 5893, and believe that the referrence is to Abū 'Abd al-Raḥmān Muḥammad ibn 'Abdallāh al-'Utaķī, author of a Ta'rīkh al-Maghariba; Al-Dhahabī, Mushtabih, p. 345. The title alone is mentioned in Ibn al-Faradī, Kitāb 'Ulamā al-Andalus (Madrid 1891-2), p. 311.

still in the Maghrib he ordered the cadi of his land, al-Nu man ibn Muhammad, to make some silver astrolabes, (advising him) to seat some trustworthy person near the workman. Al-Nu'man placed there his own son Muhammad. When the work was finished, he gave it to al-Mu'izz, who asked him, "Whom didst thou place by the side of the workman?" He answered, "My son Muhammad." Upon this the caliph said, "He shall be the eadi of Egypt." Muhammad ibn al-Nu'man related: "When al-Mu'izz saw me-I was then quite a young fellow-he said to his son, 'Here is thy eadi.'" Al-Musabbihī relates : "Muhammad ibn al-Nu'man during his term of office appointed thirty assessors." He says further: "Muhammad ibn al-Nu'man was very subtle in his judgments. A woman once came to him demanding her rights of her husband, which he refused to render to her. She then asked the cadi to put her husband under lock and key, which he ordered to be done. Looking at her, he found her to be comely and in a gleeful mood. When her husband went to the prison, the cadi ordered that she should be locked up with him. At this she was very angry; but the cadi said to her: 'We have locked him up to satisfy your rights; we lock you up to satisfy his.' When the woman found this out she withdrew the complaint, and as she went away the eadi said: 'I saw that she was delighted at his being locked up, and I was afraid that she would have leisure for wrong-doing."

He adds: The vizier ibn Killis was much opposed to the sons of al-Nu'mān in regard to their judgments. It happened that al-Hasan ibn al-Husain ibn 'Alī ibn Yaḥyā al-Dakkāk married [p. 246, 1] his son to an orphan known by the name Bint al-Dībājī with the permission of Muḥammad ibn al-Nu'mān. One of the witnesses, Bakr ibn Aḥmad al-Mālikī, arose and charged that the contract was fraudulent, as the girl was not of age. He was persistent in this statement. Ibn al-Nu'mān, however, decided 'It has been proven by her own assertion that she is of age." She was taken to the kaṣr and the affair was brought to al-'Azīz. She

^{&#}x27;I suppose that this is the meaning of Jub here. It might also signify "he reconciled," i. e., litigants, which was one of the functions of a cadi.

² Wards in chancery could be married only with the permission of a judge. Al-Shīrāzī, l. c., p. 19.

was examined and found not to be of age. The cadi was therefore asked to annul the marriage; whereon the vizier cited both cadi and witnesses before him and having sworn them, said: "May his honor declare this marriage annulled and refuse to receive the testimony of these witnesses." The cadi did so, putting out a document to this effect. In it the statement was made that it had been proven to him that the girl was not of age. The vizier disapproved of the witnesses as they had been negligent in their conduct. This happened towards the end of Jumāda 1, 375. He (the vizier?) commanded that the property of the young woman should be placed in chancery, though he deducted from it a quarter for her maintenance.

(On another occasion,) it was reported to Muhammad ibn al-Nu'mān that a Christian had turned Mohammedan, that he had changed back again, though he had passed his 80th year. He was asked to recant, but refused. His case was reported to al-'Azīz, who had him turned over to the chief of police. He then ordered the cadi to send him four witnesses who should induce him to repent. Should he so repent he was to have (from al-'Azīz) 100 dīnārs; but if he persisted, he was to be killed. He rejected Islām and was killed, his body being cast into the Nile.'

A man of the Walad 'Akīl ibn Abī Ṭālib' once cited before him his wife who had a daughter with her, of whom the man declared he was not the father. Ibn al-Nu'mān tried to dissuade him, but was unable to do so. [p. 247, 1] The case was brought before al-'Azīz, who commanded the cadi to have the

¹ On the treatment of apostates from Islām, as recommended by the various schools, see Goldziher, Muhammedanische Studien, vol. ii, p. 215; Tornauw, l. c., p. 298. Al-Ḥākim, of course, handled with great severity those who were enemies of the Alid pretensions. It is related that a Syrian once affirmed that he did not know who 'Alī was. Muḥammad ibn al-Nu'mān did the bidding of his master, had the man imprisoned and then sent four notaries to question him. After that, he was brought before al-Ḥākim, who had his head cut off. See de Sacy, Les Druses, vol. i, p. CCXCVIII.

^{&#}x27;Akīl was a cousin of the prophet. See al-Nawāwī, كتاب تهذيب ed. Wüstenfeld, p. 426; Wüstenfeld, Register zu den genealogischen Tabellen, p. 84; Sprenger, Mohammad, vol. i, p. 146; al-Dhahabī, al-Mushtabih, p. 368.

li'ān' pronounced between them. The cadi cited them in Dhul-Ka'da 378 to the Jāmi' al-'Atīk; the witnesses came and he warned the husband, who, however, insisted upon the li'ān.' So the cadi pronounced it between them and thus separated them.

His son 'Abd al-'Azīz was appointed judge in his place." He presided on Mondays and Thursdays. At the beginning of the year 381 he appointed many of the nobles his assessors; and in Safar 382 he appointed a man named Ja'far in the jāmi' to deliver fetwas according to the Meccan rite. But the fakīhs of the jāmi' rose up in tumult against him. When the cadi heard of this, he took some of them and sent three of them around (the city) riding upon camels. As the position of the cadi, Abd al-'Azīz, became more secure, he ceased altogether to go to the jāmi', holding court in his own dwelling place. No one spoke to him without addressing him as "Our lord".

Now when (the caliph) al-'Azīz died, Muḥammad ibn al-Nu'mān remained in his house in al-Kāhira, and had his son 'Abd
al-'Azīz preside at the court in Miṣr every Monday and Thursday. Ibn Zūlāk says: I have never seen of any cadi in Egypt
what I have seen of Muḥammad ibn al-Nu'mān, nor have I
heard the like of it in regard to any cadi in 'Irāk. He deserved
this reputation, for he was learned, careful and cautious, distinguished in bearing and in conduct. Abu 'Abdallāh al-Samarkandī' says of him:

The li'an is the curse which the husband pronounces upon his wife if he suspects her of adultery, but has not sufficient proof to substantiate his charge, or if the fourth of the necessary witnesses is wanting. The formula that he uses is from the Koran, Sura xxiv, 4-9 لعنة الله إلى الكنيس لعنة الكاذبين , upon which the whole ordinance is based. The wife could do the same in regard to her husband. See the section باب اللعان in al-Shīrāzī, l. c., pp. 233 et seq.; al-Sha'rānī. Kitāb al-Mīzān, ii, 111; Kashf al-Ghumma, ii, 86. A portion of the passage in Bukhārī's Ṣaḥīḥ is translated by Goldziher in his Muhammedanische Studien, vol. ii, p. 285. See, further, Tornauw, l. c., p. 219; Querry, Droit Musulman, vol. i, p. 92, and Snouck-Hurgronje in ZDMG., vol. liii, p. 163.

² Ibn Khallikān (vol. ii, p. 365) mentions the fact that in Jumāda 1, 380 (July-August 990) Muḥammad appointed the celebrated astronomer 'Alī ibn Yūnus, the author of so-called Hākimite Tables, to act as 'adl.

³ I suppose that this was considered degrading for a man of position. Only the poor and the Bedouin ride on camels.

⁴ Ibn Kallikän has "Abd Alläh ibn al-Hasan al-Ja'farī of Samarcand;" he, also, cites some more verses than ibn Hajar.

[p. 248, 1] He was unique in noble qualities, he was illustrious in honorable deeds and excellent.

His brilliancy gleamed and he pressed resolutely on, as gleams a polished sword.

When he gave judgment rectitude was his companion, when he gave awards beneficence was his colleague.1

When he ascended the pulpit he was a veritable Kuss, when he was present at gatherings he was a true Khalīl.²

Al-Musabbihī says he wrote many verses, but they do not evidence much power. Among the best are:

O thou who are like the full moon of heaven, when seven and five and two days have passed;2

O thou who art by nature perfect in beauty, thou engrossest my heart and keepest my eye from sleep.

Is there anything that is desirable in thy mouth for me? If not, I must go off with the sandals of Hunain.

He adds: During his term of office he had a brutal fellow stoned who had committed adultery with an Alid woman. The man was stoned in the Sūk al-Dawābb near to the mosque of Ibn Ṭūlūn in the year 392. But when increasing power came to him and his station became elevated, sickness took hold of him—gout and festering sores. He was ill most of the time,

² According to de Slane (Ibn Khallikān, vol. iii, p. 573/4) the references here are to Kuss bishop of Najrān, and to al-Khalīl ibn Ahmad. Kuss was renowned for his eloquence, and the saying went: أخطب من (see Freytag, Proverbien, vol. iv, Index); Sprenger, Mohammad, vol. i, p, 102; Sprenger, El-Mas'idd's . . . "Meadows of Gold," i, p. 138. Al-Khalīl was the founder of the science of prosody among the Arabs (Flügel, Die grammatischen Schulen der Araber, p. 37).

¹ Some readings in the Mss. are undoubtedly wrong; Berlin 9819 omits the lines altogether. In the first line of poetry, Paris 5893 has غفىڭ,

³ I. e., at the time of its fullness.

⁴ I. e., Can I expect any favour from thee?

 $^{^{}t}$ I. e., disappointed. See the explanation in de Slane, l. c., vol. iii, p. 578, note 8.

so that his son 'Abd al-'Azīz performed his judicial functions, kept the registers in his father's house and performed his other duties. Barjawān,' in spite of his rank, visited him every Thursday. He was very well-mannered, of fine stature, stout, well ridden, well groomed and perfumed, whether sitting in his majlis or riding out. Whenever he had to make a gift he gave much and he gave quickly.

· His death happened on Tuesday evening, Safar 4, [p. 249, 1] while he was still in office. Al-Hākim came, said the prayers over him in his house, and had him buried beneath its kubba. Afterwards his body was transferred to the cemetery. He had been in office fourteen years six months and ten days. There was found charged to him property to the amount of 36,000 dinars belonging to orphans and others. The governor, Barjawan, ordered all that was found to be seized, sending his secretary, Abū al-'Alā Fahd, a Christian, to seize this property, to give orders in regard to its sale, and to exact payment from the notaries in whose charge the property had been. He, who could show a written document of the cadi was allowed to remain in possession of what he had; but he who could not show a written document of the cadi was fined," until half of the judgment was paid up. Then a settlement was made with the creditors at the rate of one-half. The judge further ordered that in future no money belonging to orphans or to persons absent should be deposited with any notaries. He then set apart a place in the Zukāk al-Kanādīl ' where this money should be deposited. notaries were to put a seal upon it, and it was not to be opened except in the presence of all of them. For some time the matter remained in this fashion. Muhammad ibn al-Nu'man, however, gave over to one of the notaries, 'Abdallah ibn Ahmad ibn Muhammad al-Midadi, the money belonging to an orphan, and demanded a notarial document in regard to it. The notary

On the eunuch Barjawan, the regent for the young caliph al-Hākim, see ibn Khallikan, vol. i, p. 253; Stanley Lane-Poole, History of Egypt, p. 124.

[&]quot;The term حاكم acquired the meaning "governor;" then it was used for any ruler. See Van Berchem, l. c., pp. 205, 420.

Read غرم for غرم in the text.

⁴ Ibn Dukmāk, L. c., p. 18, mentions a زقاق القناديل, but in Fusţāţ.

refused. Then Muhammad said: "He is not the one who ought to write out such a document." It happened that al-Midādī died in the year 379, while holding many such deposits. Yazīd ibn al-Sanadī, the secretary of al-Ḥākim, had sent to him before his death [p. 250, 1] to get a receipt in regard to the moneys that he held. After his death, the greater part of this money was not found. So the cadi sold his house for 5,000 dīnārs and with this paid the deposits.

Al-Husain ibn 'Alī ibn al-Nu'mān ibn Muhammad ibn Mansūr ibn Ahmad ibn Hayyun (with unpointed ha, ya, silent wan with damma, and at the end a nun), al-Maghribī al-Ismā'īlī of the fourth century. He was born in Mahdiyya, two days before the end of Dhu-l-Hijja 353. When quite young he came with his father to al-Kāhira. He learnt a book on law by heart, and was so able as to become one of the imams of the Seveners.' His uncle, Muhammad ibn al-Nu'man, appointed him judge in the jāmi'. Then he was deposed in favor of the former's son, 'Abd al-'Azīz ibn Muhammad. When Muhammad ibn al-Nu'mān died, Egypt remained without a cadi for 19 days. Then Barjawan invited him by the order of al-Hākim and made him cadi; placing his cousin 'Abd al-'Azīz ibn Muhammad ibn al-Nu'mān over cases in appeal. This occurred at the end of Safar or at the beginning of Rabi' I, 389. Al-Musabbihi gives the corrected date as Safar 23rd. He says: Barjawan clothed him with a sword and with white linen' garments, he put on him a mantle and gave him a turban-both of them gilded.2 He caused him

^{&#}x27;If this translation is correct, it will be necessary to read السبعية. On these "Seveners" see Macdonald, Development of Muslim Theology, p. 42. Perhaps the correct reading is الشبعة.

² I have translated in this fashion because of the note in Dozy, Dictionnaire des Noms des Vétements, pp. 180, 1, s. v. مقاطع . But

a مقطعة may be the same as the more usual مقطعة, of which de Goeje (Glossary to Tabari, p. cdxxix) has collected a number of instances in the sense "vestimenta consuta."

Read here منهبين. It seems that the turban worn by jurists was thicker than that worn by ordinary Muhammadans. For that reason, a jurist is sometimes called ماحب عمامة or ربّ العمامة (Dozy, Vétements, p. 307). The غياسان or طُرُعة (a veil) was origin-

to ride upon a mule¹ with two mules going before him. Before him were borne many fine garments. The diploma, which created him head cadi in Miṣr, al-Kāhira, Alexandria, Syria, [p. 251, 1] the two sacred places, the West and its provinces was read out while he remained standing. He was appointed leader in prayer² and controller of the markets.² He rode to the jāmi¹ and he refused to receive a company of notaries who had served his uncle to the number of fourteen. Al-Musabbiḥī gives their names. After a month's time he received them and installed al-Ḥusain ibn Muḥammad ibn Ṭāhir as judge in Miṣr and Mālik ibn Sa¹īd al-Ṭāriķī in al-Ṭāriķī. He made his brother al-Nu¹mān inspector of weights and measures.⁴ This last one was also made cadi in Alexandria and Ahmad ibn Muhammad ibn Abī

ally worn only by the chief cadi, and became thus part of his investiture (ibid., pp. 255, 279). Al-Nuwairi (quoted by Quatremère, l. c. vol. i, part i, p. 21) says distinctly in speaking of Mālik Sa'īd, son of Baibars: على الأعيان والأكابر بالطراحات وما كان قبل ذلك يتخلع . See further citations ibid.; and cf. Sprenger, "Eine Skizze der Entwickelungsgesch. des muslimischen Gesetzes," in Zeitschrift für vergleichende Rechtswissenchaft, vol. x, p. 28. Evetts, Coptic Churches, ii, p. 120. This peculiar head-dress persisted down through Mameluke times, and is often referred to. See the account of Barbafella, secretary of the Venetian Embassador in 1508 in Patton, Hist. of the Egypt. Revol. i, p. 62, and Joseph ibn Isaac Sambari's Hebrew account (end of the seventeenth century) in Neubauer, Mediaeval Jewish Chronicles, i, 115.

At a later time a special piebald mule was kept in the royal stables for the use of the chief cadi. See al-Kalkashandi, l. c., p. 184; al-Makrīzī, al-Khiṭaṭ: على الاصطبلات برسم ركوبه على اللاصطبلات برسم ويقدّم له من الاصطبلات بوسم وهو مخصوص بهذا اللون من البغال دون الدولة .

pl. علات may also mean "gifts," "donations." See de Goeje in the glossary to his edition of Balādhurī, p. 108. "Controller of gifts and donations?"

³ I. e., محتسب.

⁴ The correct reading is العيار as in Ms. 5893. العياد in the other Mss. is a mistake for العيار.

'Awwam responsible for the pensions. He who had charge of the property of orphans' was also intrusted with the accounts.

On Safar 3, 391, while he was sitting in the jami' of Misr expounding the law, the evening prayer was offered. It had just been commenced when a Maghribī from Andalusia came and attacked him. With the knife of a basket-maker he gave him two cuts, in the face and on the head. The man was caught, killed and hung up. From that day on al-Husain was guarded by twenty armed men. Al-Musabbihī mentions this matter in his history while discussing the events of Muharram 2nd, 393. The cadi waited until his wound was healed; then he went to al-Hākim. He received investiture, was carried upon a mule, while another was led before him.

This al-Husain was wounded while performing a rak'a [p. 252, '11 during the evening prayer. For this reason the guards were accustomed to take their station back of him with drawn swords until he had finished; then they said their prayers. Al-Musabbihī affirms that he was the first cadi to whom this happened. Al-Häkim gave orders that double the salary, presents and appanages2 of his uncle should be given to al-Husain. He made a condition, however, that al-Husain should not touch even a single dirhem of money belonging to the people.2 He put him in office, invested him with the sword, caused him to ride on a mule, giving him the care of justice over his whole kingdom. He made him preacher and imam in the chief mosques; " gave him the care of them and of other mosques; appointed him inspector of the mint, and of preaching, as well as chief reader and chief scribe at the evening levee. He was the first 'Ubaidi cadi to be preacher. On account of his poor health the people imagined that he would not preside at court, and that the

¹ Read الانتاء with Ms. 5893.

either "apanages" (Quatremère, l. c., ii, p. 200), or "the revenues of his estate" (Dozy, vol. ii, p. 374).

⁸ I. e. money of orphans and the like, placed for safety in the diwan of the cadi.

f the correct reading here is, as I suppose, علما المساحل الحامعة, the reference must be to the "cathedral mosques" (if such a barbarous term be permitted), where the Friday prayers were said. The older term was masjid. In course of time, any mosque was called a jāmi'. See the learned notes of Van Berchem in his Corpus, pp. 173, 765.

appointment was really meant for the son of his uncle Muhammad, 'Abd al-'Azīz, because his father had preceded him as judge and had instructed him during his lifetime. Then a number of people made the complaint that there were deposits belonging to them in the cadi's diwan.' The cadi cited his cousin Abd Al-'Azīz ibn Muḥammad ibn al-Nu'mān, and wrote to his uncle Abū Tähir ibn al-Musnadī in regard to the matter. was told that his uncle had made free use of all this money, regarding it as a loan. Their reply displeased him, and he made a further investigation, sending Fahd ibn Ibrāhīm the Christian, the secretary of Barjawan, to examine into their accounts. he took charge and investigated and compelled 'Abd al-'Azīz [p. 253, 1] to sell whatsoever his father had left. Then he sold all that he had, realizing from this more than 7,000 dinars. The secretary, however, had calculated the liability to be twice this sum. The cadi, sitting in the kasr, called the creditors and paid them the sums owed.

He then set apart in the Zukāk al-Kanādīl a special place for the moneys deposited with the cadi and placed there five notaries to register whatsoever was brought there and attested. He was the first to set aside a separate place for the care of moneys intrusted to the cadi. Previous to this all such property had been intrusted to the cadi in person or to his assessor. Al-Husain attended to all affairs with harshness and severity.2 He was the first one to have the title chief cadi in his patent; his father being the first of the Egyptian cadis to be addressed by such a title. Al-Hasan al-Maghribī once brought a law case before him; but his tongue slipped while he was addressing the This angered the cadi, who sent him to the prefect of police and he was punished in the presence of the cadi's chamberlain with 1800 strokes. He was carried about the city in disgrace and died upon that same day. His bier was brought out, most of the people of the city came to see it, and honored his grave, praying for him but cursing the one that had done him injury. The cadi repented of his deed—but his repentance was too late.

¹ موضع الحكم . Cf. Dozy, vol. ii, p. 792.

i. e. he inspired fear among people.

³ Or "in his protocols."

In Rajab 393 al-Hākim gave 'Abd al-'Azīz ibn Muhammad permission to try cases and to take testimony, though at the same time he confirmed al-Husain in his positions. 'Abd al-'Azīz arranged that notaries should be present at his majlis, making the condition that they should not be present at the majlis of his cousin. In this manner the people were quite uncertain what to do. [p. 254, 1] If one party brought a case before al-Husain, his opponent would bring the case before 'Abd al-'Azīz. When 'Abd al-'Azīz was present in the jāmi', the place of al-Husain was quite deserted, so that the matter was much talked about. Al-Hākim then wrote a diploma in his own hand to the effect that trial cases should be brought only before al-Husain. He ordered that no one should register judical decrees upon the authority of anyone else; and that if anyone summoned a litigant who had already brought his case before al-Husain, no one else could take charge of it.1 This diploma was read before the assembly.2 At this the cadi's heart rejoiced. His growing prominence did not cease until he reached the highest point of glory; so that he compelled the notaries to be present at his own house and in the jami', and whenever one of them absented himself he had him punished.2 It was his custom to have the contents of the documents he was to sign read in his presence before he added his own signature.

In spite of all this (harshness) he was very kind to men of learning. He used to reward them with flour and barley, etc., and would send them garments and other things. This lasted until al-Hākim ordered him to be removed from office in Ramadān 394. He knew nothing of this, remaining in his house, until someone came and told him that his cousin 'Abd al-'Azīz had been made cadi. He refused to believe it until it was substantiated. Thereupon he shut his door and remained in his house. His fear waxed [p. 255, 1] until on Muharram 6, al-

[.] For the meaning of ايمكن احدا y see the instances cited by de Goeje in the glossary to Tabari, p. CDLXXXIX.

² 📞, de Goeje, ibid., p. cDXC.

Hākim gave orders that he should be taken upon an ass in broad daylight and imprisoned; and at the beginning of the year 395 he was beheaded together with Abū Tāhir al-Maghāzilī and the muezzin of the kaṣr. The bodies of the three were then burned near to the Bāb al-Futūh. One of the things that led al-IJākim to disayow him was the story of the man whom the chief of police had beaten so that he died, as related previously.

Ibrāhīm ibn al-Rakīk, in his history of North Africa, has related the story of this al-Hasain and al-Hakim. He says (in the exact words): "And al-Hakim killed his cadi, Husain ibn 'Alī, and had him burned in fire." It is said that one of the reasons of his killing him was that al-Hākim had been very liberal to him; but had made the condition that he should keep his hands off the people's money. A certain man who had a grievance sent a paper to al-Hakim, in which he told him that when his father died he had left him 20,000 dinars, and that it had been placed in the diwan of the cadi Husain. He (the son) was living for some time upon this money. He had come one day and asked for some of it; but the cadi told him that all that his father had left was spent. Al-Hākim summoned the cadi and showed him the complaint. The cadi answered just as the complainant had averred, adding that whatever had been left by the man's father had been spent on the man's living. Al-Hākim at once ordered the books of the cadi dealing with this matter to be brought. When this was done, al-Hākim looked up the accounts of the man, and it turned out that he had received only a little of the actual sum. Most of it was found to be still due him. Al-Hakim enumerated to the cadi the high offices he had given him, the various gifts and honors, and his having made the condition that al-Husain should not touch the people's money. He was afraid and terrified, and said, "Forgive me, and I shall do better." He went away

Abū Ishāk Ibrāhīm ibn al-Ķāsim al-Kātib al-Ķāruānī al-Raķīķ al-Nadīm (Brockelmann, i, 155). His Ta'rīkh Ķairuān is not mentioned by Brockelmann; but it is cited by Nuwairī, 'Idhārī, Makrīzī, Makkarī, Ibn Khaldūn, Ḥājī Khalīfa, etc. See Carl H. Becker, Beitrāge zur Gesch. Aegyptens, i, 9. The present citation shows that Becker is right in placing his death later than 383 A.H. (the date given by Brockelmann).

² Cf. the expression: مَلَا عينه وقلبع.

[،] التعرض Reading with Ms. 5898

with the man and paid him what was owing in the presence of witnesses. But al-Ḥākim bore him a grudge and had him thrown into prison. Then he was taken out upon an ass in broad daylight, the people looking on and following him until he came to the loggia, where he was beheaded and his body burnt.

He held the office of cadi for five years, seven months and cleven days. Al-Musabbihī says that he once pronounced the li ān between a drunken man and his wife in the Jāmi 'al-'Atīk, which was without precedent under the 'Ubaidites. 'Al-Ḥākim gave to the aforementioned cadi as a fief a house in the vicinity of the Khalīj al-Ḥākimī.' When the Nile was high he went (in a boat) to this house; the notaries came to him by land upon their donkeys. Then he rode from it to the Kasr and returned; after which he went to his dwelling-place in the Dār al-Hamrā.

'Abd al-'Azīz ibn Muhammad ibn al-Nu'man ibn Muhammad ibn al-Manṣūr ibn Ahmad ibn Ḥayyūn al-Kairuāni was an Ismā'ī-lian of the fourth century. He was born on the first of Rabī' 1, 355. He was appointed cadi on Thursday, Ramadān 16, 394, and the revision of judgments was given in his power. He was invested in the usual way, being carried upon a mule, while two other mules were led before him, and a trunk filled with garments was carried in front of him. He entered the jāmi', a large assembly being present. His diploma was read out from the pulpit. His first act as judge was to dismiss all the notaries whom his uncle al-Husain had been accustomed to receive, with the exception of Sharaf ibn Muḥammad al-Makrī, whom he appointed to write down his decisions and his law cases. In his protocols the following was his title: "The Chief cadi 'Abd

¹ The Great Canal, variously called Khalīj Miṣr, Khalīj Amīr al-Mu'-minīn, Khalīj al-Hākimī, etc.; see al-Khiṭaṭ ii, 188; Siyūṭī, Husn, i, 76; Ibn Iyās, Ta'rīkh Miṣr, p. 163, and de Sacy, Relation de l'Egypte par Abd-Allatif, p. 419, note 11.

The titles here given are of interest. He is called the "Cadi of 'Abd Allāh," with reference to the Shī'ite pretensions of descent from 'Alī who is the الله عليه (Van Berchem, l. c., p. 48). Manṣūr is part of the caliph's name: Manṣūr abū 'Alī. The formula عليه الله عليه ألاكرمين to which is usually added وأبنائه الأكرمين (ibid., p. 25 et al.), has a like reference. When al-Jauhar came to Fustāt, he had the following words added at the end of the Khuṭba: "O my God! bless Muḥammad the chosen, Alī the accepted, Fāṭima the pure, and al-Hasan and al-Husain, the two grandsons of the Apostle;

al-'Azīz cadi of 'Abdallāh and of his representative Mansūr Abū 'Alī the Imām al-Ḥākim, commander of the faithful—may God bless him and his pure fathers—over Al-Kāhira of al-Mu'izz, Miṣr, Alexandria, the Two Holy Places, the districts of Syria, al-Raḥba, al-Raḥka, the Maghrib, together with its provinces,

النير.) them whom thou hast freed from stain and thoroughly purified اذهب الله عنهم الرجس وطهرهم تطهيرا). O my God! bless the pure Imams, ancestors of the Commander of the believers (in the interesting دوسل على الائمة الطاهرين اباء امير المؤمنيين bit of Genizah poetry by one Solomon ben Joseph ha-Köhen (published by Julius H. Greenstone in AJSL., January, 1906), the Fāţimids are also called המהורים (line 8). There are a number of such references to peculiar Muhammadan titles and expressions, e. g., l. 5 המלך contains אוכוים 9 in line (ועמוק=הכהן 8a ; الملك الاعظم=הגרול a play upon the same word); 8b קצין 11; ולומטרים ;أدام الله حيوته = יחייהו דר מעונים :امير الجيوش = צבאות אשר חרבו מרוטה 1.14 ; וلسيك الأحلّ=ראש לכל ראשים 12a In a notarial document written for the Chief Cadi al-Kasim ibn 'Abd al-'Azīz ibn al-Nu'mān (an account of which will be published in the JQR. for April, 1907) and referring to the rebuilding of one of the old synagogues in Cairo, the full title of al-Mustansir is given. It is interesting to compare the extent of the caliph's rule there mentioned with that to be found in the diploma of his cadi. He is described as : امير المؤمنين على المعرية القاهرة الحجروسة والشام والرقة والرحبة [والحرم]ين ومدينة حلب والقيروان [وسنها]جة ونواحي المغرب [وما فتخه الله] عز وجل [وما يسم] فتحه الاميم In the memoir mentioned . المؤمنين من بلدان الشرف والمغرب above, I have given all necessary explanations. Ibn Zūlāķ in his وكانوا : Paris Ms. 1817, p. 47a) says) كتاب تاريح مصر وفضائلها الخلفا الفاطمية يحكمون من مصر الى الشام الى حلب الفرات الى مكة المشوفة الى القدس والخليل وصارت مصر والفوات

as well as whatsoever God has given into his power, and he has made easy to be conquered by the Commander of the Faithful (in the countries of the East and West)." 1

And 'Abd al-'Azīz nominated to be his successor as judge Mālik ibn Sa'īd al-Fāriķī, and in [matters relating to] petitions Ibn Abī 'Awwām. The notaries whom he had not received hung around his door; so he sent to them [saying]: "Court duties have increased greatly upon me and I shall need your assistance in receiving testimony. Each one of you must attend to his business; and whenever I need one of you for testimony, I will make an appointment with him." Then they left him. [p. 258, 1] But on the 17th day of Dhul-Ka'da he had them come and made them take an oath that they had made no efforts to find employment as notaries under his uncle, that they had neither bribed him nor otherwise induced him to appoint them.'

They took the oath in regard to this, and he received them.

Al-Ḥākim caused 'Abd al-'Azīz to mount the minbar with him upon Fridays and upon festive occasions, as had been the custom of his predecessors. His power in legal matters extended and his station became exalted. He took his seat in the jāmi' and commenced to expound the work of his grandfather entitled "The Basal Distinctions of the [Different] Schools of Law." During his occupancy al-Ḥākim made over to him the care of the Dūr al-'Ilm' which he had instituted. Al-Ḥākim [namely]

وحدة المهديّين المهديّين المعارف المهديّين المهدكة واحدة المهديّين المهدين المه

¹ These words are added from Ms. 2152.

The Ms. reading at (or اعروا عدوا وه seems impossible. I suggest the reading: ولا رشوة ولا اغروة, and have translated accordingly.

^aThe Dār al-Ilm, or "House of Science," was founded in order to propagate Shi'ite teaching in Egypt. Al-Makrīzī (Khitat i, 458) has a circumstantial account of its foundation drawn from al-Musabbihī, who is evidently the authority followed by Ibn Hajar. The Dār al-Ilm was opened on the 10th of the second Jumāda 395 A.H. and was closed by Ibn 'Abd al-Tāhir al-Afḍal ibn Amīr al-Juyūsh in the sixth century A.H. See, also, Ibn Khallikān, tr. de Slane, vol. i, p. xxix.

VOL. XXVII. 20

had built and arranged it, and had placed in it many scientific works, throwing it open to the Fakihs, allowing them to sit in it doing whatsoever they pleased—copying, studying or reading; after it had been furnished, the hangings placed upon the doors, and the necessary arrangements made for its attendants and for the servants in charge of the furniture.

This 'Abd al-'Azīz was appointed to sit and to converse with al-Hākim. The cadi found it necessary to give his older son al-Kāsim permission to participate in his legal functions at the jāmi', where he sat to hear cases and to decide disputes. People were accustomed to take cases from him to his father and from his father to him. His younger son he ordered [p. 259, 1] to verify' the documents which people brought, and to render decisions in a court held in his own dwelling. In addition, al-Hākim appointed him ('Abd al-'Azīz) to administer the estate of his cousin Husain ibn 'Alī ibn al-Nu'mān, after that one had been killed; so he took charge of all his property. He did the same with the estate of Abu Mansur al-Jauzī, one of the prominent men of his reign. He preferred the cadi as prayer-leader over a number of his assistants; the custom having come into vogue that the caliph alone should lead them in prayer. He commanded him to forbid men and women to promenade in the streets on the 'Ashūrā festival;' it being their (i. c. Alid) custom to send out women and others who poured forth lamentations, who wept for al-Husain, and who chanted dirges in the streets. The crowds were accustomed to stretch forth their hands to the goods of the merchants. This having come to the ear of al-Hākim, he commanded the cadi to forbid their going about in the streets and [to order] that they should only lament and chant in the open country."

It happened that a certain Kutāmī ' owed a certain sum but refused to pay it. It having been in his possession during a bad

^{1.}Or "to register."

² On the 'Āshūrā festival, see the data which I have collected in the Jewish Encyclopedia s. v.

^{*}I. e. the space between Cairo and Jabal al-Mukattam, called in al-Makrīzi's time "The Smaller Karāfa." See al-Khiṭat, ii, p. 455.

⁴ The Kutāma were a Berber tribe. 'Ubaid Allāh, the founder of the Fāṭimid dynasty, was a Kutāmī. See al-Istakhrī, ed. de Goeje, p. 39, below.

year,1 he had appropriated it for himself. The case came to the attention of the cadi, who sent a messenger to the man; but [the messenger was spurned. The matter was then brought to the attention of al-Hakim, who ordered the Kutami to be dragged before the cadi in Fustat. Then he was brought on foot to al-Kähira and compelled to give up that which was due. Al-Hākim [also] entrusted to the cadi the care of the mosques, the handling of the wakfs, the collection of the products [belonging to them] and the application of them [p. 260, 1] as he should think well. This he did to the best of his ability, detailing for the purpose two tellers who should pass upon accounts.

The cadi betrothed his two sons to the daughters of the ka'id Fadl ibn Sālih. The ceremony was held in the castle, the marriage contract being for four thousand dinars which al-Hakim accorded from the public treasury. He bestowed upon them ready-made robes of honor and sixteen double pieces of cloth. The two were carried upon saddled mules, similar ones being led before them.

The cadi was severe in his judgment; his authority was great, and he exercised authority over all the people of the kingdom. He gave orders that those notaries who should absent themselves in the morning up to the time of the majlis on Mondays and Thursdays should be mulcted in a heavy fine. His delegate at court, Mālik ibn Sa'īd, asked him to appoint al-Khalīl ibn al-Khalil in his place, as something had happened to him preventing him from riding or from going to court. This request he granted; though this had not been permitted to any other, that a delegate should name his own substitute in the city.

Al-Musabbihī relates in his history-when detailing the events of the year 397 [A.H.]-the following circumstances, the gist of which is: 'Alī ibn Sulaimān al-Munajjim,? one of the intimates of the commander-in-chief al-Hasan [p. 261, 1] ibn Jauhar, told him that the cadi was visiting al-Husain ibn Jauhar the kā'id in his dwelling upon one of the Christian's fast days. He found there Abū al-Hasan al-Rasī, al-Munajjim and their

¹ The reading in the text is difficult. In lieu of it, I would suggest . وكان عناية شاة بأس وعجوفة

Or "the astrologer."

³ The reading of the name is not clear in the Mss.; but see al-Dhahabi, al-Tanbih, p. 246; Kosegarten, Chrestomathie, p. 121.

attendants. A servant came in to say that Abū Ya'kūb al-Kistās, the physician, was at the door. He was invited to come in, the company being at table. They made him welcome and a number of dishes were placed before him. Then the table was cleared and drinks were brought, also the fruits and scents belonging thereto. They fell to until they became drunk. The cadi then went away; while the kā'id and al-Rasī fell asleep. Abū Ya'kūb, the physician, remained in a portico which he had built in this place—the portico overlooked a large stretch of water1-drinking and enjoying himself until he was overcome by drunkenness. They then went out looking for his mule. The mule of al-Rasī was brought, but he refused to mount it. The servants begged him to return to his place until his own mule should be brought. So he went back to where al-Rasī was, and slept at his side. Then one of the lackeys came and lifted the curtain, looking for the two. He saw al-Rasī but did not see Abū Ya'kūb; so he entered and searched for him; and [in the endl caught sight of the tail of his garment in the water. He called a lackey who knew how to swim; this one jumped into the water, and found Abū Ya'kūb with his garments rolled around his face and sunk in the water. The servants sent word to the ka'id, summoned the cadi, and waked up al-Rasī. [p. 262, 1] The [whole] matter was most disagreeable to them, as they knew the consideration al-Hakim had for al-Ya'kub. They begged me to inform al-Hākim of what had happened. I went to him and told him that Abū Ya'kūb had gotten up during the night while in a stupor, and had jumped into the river; and that when the lackey got to him he found him caught in his clothing and drowned. This grieved al-Hākim, who appeared to be very much affected. He had the matter looked into. The exact circumstances were related to him, but he shook his head.

The cadi, al-Rasī and the kā'id, however, had come to the castle on foot with fine turbans on their heads. Al-Hākim summoned them [to his presence]. They swore and affirmed upon oath that they had had nothing to do with the whole affair. The kā'id and the cadi called al-Rasī to witness, and he testified to their innocence. Orders were then given that the body should

ا The description confirms Dozy's suggestion (ii. 41) that the غارمة was a "portique ouvert."

be prepared and buried. This occurred towards the end of the year 397 [A.H.].

On Thursday, the middle of Rajab 398, the report was spread abroad that 'Abd al-'Azīz, the cadi, had been deposed and that his successor, Mālik ibn Sa'īd, had been confirmed. When the morning came, he did not go to the court until near mid-day. Then he did go; held court, led the mid-day prayers and went off all alone, without chamberlain or footman, until he came to his dwelling place. As the day commenced to decline, certain people went around to all the chief men telling them to collect in the castle on the morrow. [p. 263, 1] So they all assembled before Mālik ibn Sa'īd, who was invested with the various functions with which 'Abd al-'Azīz had been invested—whose term of office had [thus] lasted three years, nine months and twenty-eight days.

Al-Musabbihī says: 'Abd al-'Azīz dismissed from office thirteen persons while he sat as appeal judge, and two during his cadiship. After his deposition, 'Abd al-'Azīz was in the habit of going to the castle alone, though constantly expecting to be killed. On the 13th of the second Jumada, 399 [A.H.], the kā'id Husain ibn Jauhar and the cadi went out riding according to their custom, and they came back without any incident having occurred.1 Then [al-Hakim] sent for them; and 'Abd al-'Azīz going first, was clapped into prison. His servant returned home [alone] with his mule; whereupon the kā'id and his son hid themselves. But the door of their house was broken in and al-Hākim gave stringent orders that they should be brought. This being found impossible, al-Hakim gave word that 'Abd al-'Azīz should be released, who returned to his dwelling place. The people were already making preparations for his funeral, but he quieted them. The shop-keepers had also closed their booths; these he ordered to be opened again. After three days, the ka'id went to al-Hakim unmolested. Splendid robes were presented to him and to 'Abd al-'Azīz: before them many garments being carried. They were led [in state] upon two horses, many horsemen preceding them. Then al-Hakim gave back to 'Abd al-'Azīz the hearing of appeal His certificate was read out; he was clothed with cases.

or "having greeted" [al-Ḥākim.]

ready-made garments [p. 264, 1] and with the tailasān. He was led riding upon a mule; before him was another and in front of him was carried a chest full of garments. He was [thus] confirmed on Safar 9th, 400 [A.H.] The revenues of a fief were given to him, and upon the door of his dwelling-place a plaque was put with the name of the dīwān. On the last days of Ramadān the cadi's sons married the daughters of the kā'id to whom they had been betrothed.

In the latter part of Muharram 401 [A.II.] the cadi and the ka'id became suspicious of perfidy on the part of al-Hākim towards them; and on Safar the 9th the cadi, the commanderin-chief Husain, their followers and their friends took to flight, carrying with them much of their wealth, and went in the direction of Dujwa.2 When al-Hakim heard of this, he put seals on their dwellings and ordered Mālik ibn Sa'īd al-Fāriķī to ride to the dwellings of the cadi and of al-Husain, to seize whatever he might find there and to carry it off. The cadi and the ka'id kept in hiding until Muharram the 6th, 401 [A.H.] when they appeared, a safe-conduct having been written for They remained at their posts until Friday, the 12th of Jumada, on which day they were present at their posts and then returned. At once al-Hakim sent to them and they came back; whereupon a band of Turks killed both in the vestibule. The seal was at once put [p. 265, 1] on their dwellings, their houses were immediately surrounded, and they passed away unavenged. Many of their followers were seized and fined.

'Abd al-'Azīz was learned in the canon-law of the Imāmī rite, as his whole family had been, especially his grandfather. The Sheikh 'Imād al-Dīn ibn al-Kathīr' attributed to him the authorship of a work entitled Al-Balāgh al-Akbar wal-Nāmūs al-A'zam dealing with the principles of religion. But in this he was mistaken; for it was a work composed by his father giv-

ا واستقر Reading .

² Dujwa or Dijwa, six parasangs from Fustāt, Yākūt, ii, 555, in the Sharkiyya province. This can hardly be the present محرى, marked in the Egyptian Postal Guide (Maslahat al-Busta, Cairo 1906, p. 268) as being in the Kalyūbiyya province.

³ Born 1301, died 1373. The reference may be to his large historical work, Al-Bidāya wal-Nihāya, Brockelmann, ii, 49.

ing the ideas of al-Nu'mān, that one's father. Ibn Kathīr says that the eadi Abū Bakr al-Bākilānī' wrote a refutation of this work. Ibn Kathīr adds "It contains heterodox ideas, the like of which Iblīs himself would not have conceived." Such were his words.

Kāsim ibn Abd al-'Azīz ibn Muhammad ibn al-Nu'mān al-Maghribī belonging to the Imāmī sect, of the fifth century. He was called Abu Muhammad, and was put in office after Ibn Abī al-'Awwām' on Sunday, the 4th of the first Jumāda, in the year 418.2 His diploma was published in the kasr and in the jāmi' of Fustāt. He received the title Kādī al-Kudāt, Thikat al-Daula, Amīn al-A'imma, Sharaf al-Ahkām, Jalāl al-Islām. He exercised his functions until he was deposed on Sunday the 25th of Rajab in the year 419, he having lasted for one year, two months and some days. This was his first tenure of office. his place was appointed 'Abd al-Hākim ibn Sa'īd ibn Mālik al-Fārikī. On the 6th of Dhul-ka'da, in the year 427, Kāsim was re-appointed to office, presided over civil [p. 266, 1] and criminal cases, and (also) over the preaching. In this period of office al-Kudā'ī was appointed and became his locum tenens in this, his second period. Kasim was not praised for his conduct, although his term of office lasted for a long time, until he

Abū Bakr Muḥammad ibn al-Tayyib ibn Muḥammad ibn Ja'far ibn al-Kāsim al-Bākilānī, died 1013. See Ibn Khallikān, tr. de Slane, ii. 671. Perhaps the work referred to is his Kashf Asrār al-Bāṭinīyya mentioned by Ḥājī Khalifa, v, 199.

^{*}I. e., Abū al-'Abbās Aḥmad ibn Muḥammad ibn 'Abd Allāh ibn Abī 'Awwām.

Al-Musabbihi, in treating of the year 415, mentions the fact that al-Tähir had al-Käsim ascend the minbar with him. He is here called only "Chief Preacher." Becker, Beiträge, i, 72, 4.

⁴ The synagogue document above referred to (of the year 429 A.H.) gives his title as follows: مولانا قاضى القضاة وداعى الدعاة المين والرياستين والرياستين والرياستين والرياستين والرياستين الدعة شرف الاحكام جلال الاسلام ذو الجلالتين والرياستين (vol. ii, p. 102) Al-Siyūţī (vol. ii, p. 102) ولقب بقاضى القضاة وداعى الدعاة وثقة الدولة وشرف الاحكام واميم الامراء وشرف الاحكام

was deposed in al-Muḥarram 441; this second term having endured thirteen years, one month and four days.' The verses in which both he and Ibn 'Abd al-Ḥākim al-Fāriķī were ridiculed have already been cited.'

Abū al-Ķāsim ibu Muḥammad ibu al-Nu'mān is the same as Ibu 'Abd al-'Azīz previously mentioned.

AN ADDITIONAL NOTE AND SOME CORRECTIONS.

P. 224. I am not quite correct in saying that the history of the Egyptian cadis was first written by al-Kindī. Professor Torrey calls my attention to the fact that this was done before him by Abū al-Ķāsim 'Abd al-Raḥmān ibn 'Abd al-Ḥakam (died 257 A.H.). This was not apparent from any of the reference books; but see now Torrey, "The Muhammedan Conquest of Egypt and North Africa," in Biblical and Semitic Studies (Yale Bicentennial Publications), N. Y. 1901, p. 279: "Appended to the history proper is a collection of brief biographies of the qāḍās of Egypt, from the Conquest down nearly to the author's own time." It forms the sixth of the seven parts of the Futūḥ Miṣr. As it stops at the year 246 A.H., it is evident that al-Kindī has based his treatise upon these notes of Ibn 'Abd al-Ḥakam. I purpose to edit al-Kindī's account of the cadis.

P. 229, note 4	read	Ravaisse
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. الشرطة P. 289, 18 read

P. 240, 1 read . .

P. 242, 1 read فتنجز .

P. 242, 4 read .

P. 243, 11 read ة القضاة.

. قاضى P. 245, 2 read

P. 245, 3 read xi 22.

P. 245, 9 read (;;)

P. 248, 9 read 1, -.

. برجوان P. 248, 18 read

P. 250, 8 read xelsul, .

P. 251, 4 read , .

P. 254, 5, 10 read

P. 254, 10 read 80 .

P. 256, 16 read .

Al-Makrizi (al-Khifat, vol. i, p. 355) says that he held office for fourteen years; but this is probably not meant to be absolutely exact.

² In some other biography of this same work.

Supplement to the Old-Babylonian Vocabularies.—By R. J. Lau, Ph.D., Columbia University, New York City.

In 1896 Columbia University in New York City came into possession of 455 Babylonian clay-tablets, 258 of which are a part of the so-called Telloh tablets, discovered by Ernst de Sarzec in 1894–1895. They can be assigned to the fourth dynasty of Ur (2750–2550 B. C.), both because of the given dates and for paleographic reasons; though a number of the tablets contain only the day and month, else no date at all.

While copying, transcribing and translating these inscriptions I met with some expressions which, I believe, have not yet been translated. And when I later compared the 'Sign-List and Glossary' of my book, Ancient Babylonian Temple Records (soon to appear), with George A. Reissner's Tempelurkunden, I found that the Columbia University Collection contained words and phrases which have been left untranslated by other authors, or which do not occur on any tablets so far published.

I herewith offer the following list as a supplement to the existing vocabularies: .

AD.E (世子), father of the house; i v, major domus.

A. TIR (THE), plant which grows in the water; i. r., rice'.

BA (in) (a parcel of a field).

BAL (中本)= rêbu, go beyond, be in ercess in SE.BALBi (紫沙本本語), excess of grain

BALIKU A (HATE), some one employed at a water-wheel (BAL = dalie, draw water).

DIR, DIRIG () added, surplus'

DUK PIRIK GA iGi + GUNU () () + Sizbu, greenkarpat pirketi arkati (P71) + Sizbu, greencolored libation-poto for mulk.

DUMU BA.MIL () (slaughterer)

ERIM KU.MAL BAL.KU.A (与道面中域目的)

'hired slave employed at the water wheel'.

ERIM SE KIN (() (), slave (ERIM) who

cuts (KiN=<u>nakâsu)</u> grain (ŠE=<u>še'u)</u>.

GEME DA (* Female assistant'.

GEME HAR. HAR ((female cook)

Gis GiR. Du () something made of

wood (Qis) on which to place (DU magazu)

the foot (GIR-sepu); i.E., foot-stool'.

HU KAK (477, 1), caretaker of the fowl?

KA ()= busurtu, partial payment.

EGIR. KA (DE D) = busurtu arkatu,

'the last partial payment'.

Si. KA (DE D) = busurtu malitu,
'a partial payment in full'.

KA. ŠV. GAB (A E), official who lifted (GAB = masic) with his hand (SV = katu) the KA measure, i. E. a grain-measurer.

MÀ.A Si(G).GA (THE TEXT) = clippu mali, a full ship, cargo'.

MA dis: Ni (#), a sargo of sesame, oil.

MA GUR KU. BABBAR TUR (知道令好),

'a small barque of silver; i.e., an ornament.

MALI DUB. BA (TITELLE), house (or temple)-list;

MU...ŠU (本 ... 道) = aššu, not deviloped from <u>ana šu</u>, as has been supposed, but from <u>ana šumi (MU=sumu</u>, ŠU=<u>ana);</u> then <u>ana šium</u>, <u>ansum</u>, <u>assum</u> and <u>assu</u> PBS. LUM ()= aru + unnubu, tops of datepalm branches with their dates (fruit).

8AG NIG.GA (田田] (total possession.

TUR). RA (TT) = erêbu, bring, repeat, ditto.

UD. MA. A (FT) = talimu, troin, the second.

URU (FT) = alu, company, band; from idea

'city, inhabitants of a city; of Hebren

57 x and arabic Lot.

Abēl (אָבֶל) in the Bible.—By R. J. Lau, Ph.D., Columbia University, New York City.

Siegfried and Stade (Hebräisches Handwörterbuch, p. 5°) translate this word 'grassy plain, pasturage (Aue, Trift);' others have suggested that it should be read 25°.

It neither means 'grassy plain,' nor must it be changed to אֶבֶן for the following reasons:

1. On such an אָבֵל the Israelites had placed the 'Ark of Jahve' (אַבֵל גּרוֹלְה אֲשֵׁר הִנִּיחוּ עֶלֵיהָ אֶת־אֲרוֹן יה" (1 Sam. 6, 18: "אָבֵל גּרוֹלָה אֲשֵׁר הְנִיחוּ עֶלֵיהָ אֶת־אֲרוֹן יה"). If this אָבֵל had been a 'grassy plain,' the text would read הְּבִיחוּ בְהַּ instead of אָבֶל; it must therefore have been an object higher than the ground itself.

According to verses 14 and 15 it was an אֶבֶּן נְּדוֹלָה, 'a large stone,' which still stood in the field of Jehoshua (v. 18, last clause) in the time of the writer of the book of Samuel.

- Other passages in which אֶבֶל occurs seem to prove that these stones were placed in certain localities
 - a) to commemorate well-known events of the past:
 - a) the אַבֶּל מצָרִים of the Egyptians,' where the Israelites (called here Egyptians) mourned for Joseph; cf. Gen. 50, 11.
 - β) the אָבֵל מְחוֹלֶיה. 'the אָבֵל of the dance,' which had been placed in memory of a certain 'great rejoicing' of the people; Judges 7, 22; 1 Kings 14, 12; 19, 16.
 - γ) the אָבל בֵּית מֵעָבָה. 'the אָבל at Bêth Maachah;' 1 Kings 15, 20; 2 Kings 15, 29; 2 Sam. 20, 14, 15.
 - to mark possession; with a signification similar to that of the Assyrian kudurru, 'boundary-stone.'
 - a) אָבֵל מֵיִם (at) the water(s); 2Chron. 16, 14.

- β) אָבֵל הַשִּׁטִים (at) the locust-trees;'Nu. 33, 49.
- γ) אָבֵל כְּרָמִים, 'the אָבֵל of (at) the vine-yards;' Judg. 11, 33.

This אָבֶל stone was not merely a boundary stone, but one that marked 'possession.' The fact that the word occurs only in the singular goes far to prove, that

- only one stone was placed on the land, at the waters, in the grove of locust-trees, or in the vineyards, mentioned above;
- that most likely it was larger than a common boundary-stone, but lower than the cart on which the 'ark' was moved.
- A further proof for this assertion can be adduced from the Assyrian ablu, iblu:
 - a) Nebuchadnezzar styles himself (VR. 55, 5): nāṣir kudurrēti, mukinu ablē, 'protector of the boundarystones, and establisher of the ablē (stones).' According to this passage the kudurru was different from the ablu.
 - b) Nabopalassar says (OBI. I, col. II, 28-31: "med DIM. GAL. E ištattum (=ištēniš) iblē ukinnu" the master-builders determined the iblē. Here iblē must mean not merely the boundaries, but rather the extent of the boundaries in either direction, that is they determined where the iblē-stones should be placed, which marked the extent of the boundaries.

According to these two passages the Assyrians made use of more than one ablu or iblu, which were not the same as the kudurre, for the words occur only in the plural. The Hebrew occurs only in the singular, and was placed 1) to commemorate a certain event; or 2) to signify possession.

The Pi'lel in Hebrew.—By Louis B. Wolfenson, Johns Hopkins University, Baltimore, Md.

In the Semitic languages the great majority of words are derived from triconsonantal roots. There are a number of pluriconsonantal roots, e.g., DDD (impf. Qal with suffix Ps. 80, 14), 'eat off,' ydff' 'frog'; Arab. 'gam'al' sprout; be chief'; Syr. 'hasten'; Eth. 0704 'anbasā (anbasā (anbasā from anbasā from 'ilion,' etc.; but these are in nearly all cases derived from triconsonantal roots in various ways. According to some authorities all triconsonantal roots are in their turn derived from biconsonantal roots. The biconsonantal roots, however, they regard as altogether prehistoric, and all words in the historic stages of the languages are looked upon as derived from triconsonantal stems. The shorter biconsonantal form of the verbs 'y''y' and y''y are thus considered to be the result of elision and contraction of triconsonantal ones.

¹ The number of pluriconsonantal roots in Hebrew is small; in Syriac the number is larger, while in Arabic and especially in Ethiopic they are relatively numerous.

² For the ways in which these formations are developed cf. Gesenius-Kautzsch²⁷, § 30, p. q.; Dillmann, Aeth. Gram.². Leipzig, 1899, §§ 71-78, 77, 78; Nöldeke, Syr. Gram.², Leipzig, 1898, § 180; and the special treatises of F. G. Schwartzlose, De Linguae Arabicae Verborum Plurilitterorum Derivatione, Berolini, 1854; Stade, Ueber den Ursprung der Mehrlautigen Thatwörter der Ge'ezsprache, Leipzig, 1871; Martin Hartmann, Die Pluriliteralbildung in Semitischen Sprachen, Halle, 1875 [only the Erster Theil; Bildungen durch wiederholung des letzten Radicales am Schluss und des ersten nach dem zweiten. has appeared]; Siegmund Fraenkel, Beiträge zur Erklärung der Mehrlautigen Bildungen im Arabischen, Leiden, 1878.

² Cf. Ed. König, Lehrgebäude der Hebr. Sprache, Leipzig, 1881, 1895, II¹, § 119, 3 b), c) (p. 870 ff.); and contrast Gesenius-Kautzsch²¹, p. 99, n. 1. It is most likely that originally all roots were not biconsonantal, but that there were also triconsonantal ones; cf. Delitzsch, Studien über Indogermanisch-Semitische Wurzelverwandtschaft, Leipzig, 1873, p. 70.

⁴ Verbs "γ" y is used as a convenient symbol meaning verbs mediae u, mediae i, following König, who uses also "γ" n similarly.

This view of these verbs is that of the national Arabic grammarians, and it is supported by the many secondarily regular forms in their language. In Hebrew, however, which is in some respects more primitive than Arabic, the conditions are different, and the earliest Hebrew grammarians and lexicographers of the Middle Ages did not hold this view. They believed that in Hebrew there are biconsonantal and even uniconsonantal roots in the case of certain weak roots like נכה, etc. The explanation that the shorter forms of the verbs "y" and y"y are contractions, is based on the Arabic view, and was first introduced in Hebrew by the grammarian and lexicographer Hayyāj, living at Cordova, Spain, in the latter half of the 10th century and early part of the 11th, who spoke and wrote Arabic, and applied to Hebrew the principles of the Arabic language and the methods of the Arabic grammarians. His view of these verbs prevailed until the last century, and is held even at the present time by such a prominent grammarian as Ed. König, as well as by others of less note.

² Cf. the Lexicon of Menahem, p. [108]^b, under ¬ for ¬⊃⊃ ; cf. also p. [128]^a, and [127]^b for other examples of uniconsonantal roots (7 root of ¬⊃⊃).

⁴ His views on this subject are expounded in the two treatises called the Kitâb al-'Af-âl dawât Ḥurûf al-Lîn, and the Kitâb al-'Af-âl dawât al-Mithlain; see the edition by Morris Jastrow, Jr., published under the title "The Weak and Geminate Verbs in Hebrew, by Ḥayyuj," Leide, 1897, Preface, p. xi, and cf. Fûrst, l. c., p. xxiv.

⁵ See his *Lehrgebäude*, I, § 34 (p. 320 ff.), where the verbs y"y are treated under the heading of Contracted Verbs. Cf. also *Vorrede* VII, and pp. 479-81 with pp. 451-53. Of course the question of the ultimate origin of these shorter verbs is not affected by this opinion. Thus both

¹ Cf. Gesenius-Kautzsch²¹, § 1, n.

^{*}This is shown by the arrangement of their lexicons. Thus, e. g., in the lexicon of Menahem ben Saruk we find the root אָשׁן treated under the biconsonantal heading אַשׁן: חשׁ and שׁחְה both under חשׁים both under מַשִּין, מִשְּׁין, and אַחַן, and יְטַן, and יְטַן under יְטַּן; showing that the ultimate root of many so-called weak roots was considered biconsonantal. See the edition of Menahem's Lexicon by Herschell Filipowsky, Antiquissimum Linguae Hebraicae et Chaldaicae Lexicon . . . A Menahem ben Saruk . . . Londini et Edinburgi MDCCCLIV, pp. [168]*, [171]*, [144]*, and cf. J. Fürst, Zur Geschichte der Hebräischen Lexicographie, the Introduction to his Hebräisches u. Chald. Handwörterbuch, Leipzig, 1863 (2d ed.), p. xx.

However, beginning with J. Fürst' and Ewald, there has been a constantly growing number of scholars who have regarded the verbs "y" and y"y not as contractions of triconsonantal forms, but as developments of biconsonantal roots which were not expanded to the triconsonantal forms as in other cases. Thus Nöldeke, Böttcher, A. Müller, Stade, deLagarde, Friederich Delitzsch, Zimmern, Kautzsch, Wellhausen, and others have

König (cf. p. 308, n. 3), and Mayer Lambert, who believes that the verbs γ''y and y''y are contractions of triconsonantal forms (cf. his article "La Trilittéralité des Racines y''y et γ''y," in Revue des Études Juives [REJ], Tome xxxv, 1897, p. 203 ff.), consider that these verbs (γ''y and y''y as well as all other triconsonantal verbs are derived from original biconsonantal roots. Cf. Mayer Lambert's paper in Semitic Studies in Honor of Alex. Kohut, Berlin, 1897, p. 354-62, but contrast Gesenius-Kautzsch², p. 99, n. 1.

¹ Cf. Lehrgebäude der aramäischen Idiome, Leipzig, 1835, §§ 91 (p. 81), 153 (p. 158). As far as I can find, no credit has been given Fürst for postulating the theory that the verbs γ"y and y"y are biconsonantals, as his name is omitted in everything on this subject which I have seen, Ewald and Böttcher being the first scholars mentioned as holding

this view.

- ¹ Cf. Lehrbuch der Hebräischen Sprache⁸, Göttingen, 1870, §§ 112, 113.
- ³ In a review of Olshausen's grammar in Benfey's Orient u. Occident, I, 1862, p. 760 ff.; cf. Mandāische Gram., Halle, 1875, § 87, and Beiträge zu semit. Sprachwissenschaft [BzsS.]. Strassburg, 1904, p. 46.
 - 4 Lehrbuch, 1866-68, §§ 1116 f.; 1127 f.
 - ⁵ In ZDMG. 33, 1879, pp. 698-700.
 - 4 Hebr. Gram., 1879, pp. 109 ff., 138 ff.
- ¹ Cf. Orientalia, II., Göttingen, 1880, p. 6; Übersicht, Göttingen, 1889, pp. 26, 27.
 - 8 Assyrian Gram., Berlin, 1889, § 61, 1); § 115.
 - Vergl. Gram. d. semit. Sprachen, Berlin, 1898, § 50 b, c.; § 51 b, c.
 - ¹⁰ Gesenius-Kautzsch, Hebr. Gram. ³⁷, §§ 67, 72.
- יינין, אינים על על אינים וואר אינים אינין, אינים וואר אינים ווואר אינים וואר אינים ווואר אינים וואר אינים ווא

has been taken of these statements. Wellhausen does not refer to vol. xxvii. 21

considered these verbs as biconsonantal. It is A. Müller, Stade, and Wellhausen especially, who have most consistently carried out the biconsonantal explanation.

According to their explanation, these verbs are derived from original biconsonantal roots with a short characteristic vowel between the two radicals, corresponding to the characteristic vowel between the 2d and 3d radicals of triconsonantal verbs. Under the influence of the prevailing triconsonantal types, the biconsonantal forms of the verbs 'y''y and y''y were usually amplified: the former, by lengthening the short characteristic vowel between the two radicals, e. g., in Day' the a is from

Lagarde, nor does Nöldeke in the reprint of his paper Die Verba 'y im Hebräischen in BzsS., p. 34 ff., although Lagarde refers (Uebers., p. 26 below) to Nöldeke's article (first published ZDMG. 37, 1883, p. 525 ff.), and Nöldeke accepts the explanation of Wellhausen (BzsS., p. 46). Lagarde's explanation, however, is based on the assumption that the verbs 'Y''y had an originally long vowel between the two radicals (cf. above). This same view is held by Ewald, Delitzsch, and Zimmern (cf. ll. cc.). Wellhausen, on the contrary, correctly explains these verbs as derived from biconsonantal roots with an originally short characteristic vowel, so that the î in ''y' is lengthened (under the influence of the longer, predominant triconsonantal forms) from ĭ, just as the û in ''y' is from ŭ, and the ô for û in 'N')' from ă.

יל This lengthening takes place usually in forms in which the characteristic vowel stood originally in an open syllable, e. g., Arabic פֿבּשׁלּ, etc., from original qama, qamat, qama; Syriac פּבּשׁלּ, etc. But in Hebrew this lengthening did not take place in the corresponding forms of the Qal perf., פְּבָּשׁלְ, (מְבָּשׁלֵּ, מַבְּשׁלֵּ,), etc., being for qam, qama (mēt, bōš), with tone-long vowels, and so really=qam(a), qama (mīt, baš), etc., with heightening (not lengthening) in the tone. The forms of the Qal act. part. are the same as those of the 3d masc. sing. perf., hence qam, mēt, bōš, although the vowels are unchangeable. Cf. F. R. Blake in JAOS. vol. xxii, 1901, p. 51, n. 8; Wellhausen, Skizzen u. Vorarb. VI., p. 252; and contrast Gesenius-Kautzsch², § 72 g.

In both Hebrew and Arabic an originally short characteristic vowel was retained without lengthening when it occurred in a closed syllable. Thus in the jussive and apocopated forms the original short vowel was not lengthened because in a form expressing a command or the like it was desirable to have as short a form as possible, e. g., $\mathbf{p}_{i} = j\bar{a}q\bar{o}m$ with later tone-long \bar{o} from $jaq\bar{u}m, \mathbf{p}_{i} = uajjaq\bar{o}m$ in which the original \bar{u}

an original a, in יניל the i is from an original i, and in יניל the is for a from a; the latter by doubling (not repeating) the second radical, e. g., סבר from an original sabat, etc., the doubling being secondarily omitted in Hebrew in forms in which the final vowels are dropped, e. g., סב for sabb, cf. Arabic farra, etc.

appears as ŏ, إنا =jagēl with tone-long ē from jagīl, etc.; Arabic يقل jagul, يسن jasir, يين jazul, etc. Also in forms having an afformative beginning with a consonant, the characteristic vowel, occurring in a closed syllable with a second consonant immediately following the final radical, was not lengthened, no doubt on account of the firmness resulting from the juxtaposition of two consonants without intervening vowel, e. g., Arabic ניים quinta, ביים binta; Hebrew אולם, העלם (with o heightened from u in the tone): impf. يقلن jaqulna, يسبن jastrna, שלע jazalna; Hebrew חשבנה with o heightened (not lengthened) from ŭ (if it were lengthened it would become û as in בקום from jaqum), הנלנה with e from i, and הנלנה with o (not o as is stated, Ges.-Kautzschaf, § 72 k) obscured from & which was lengthened from an original & on account of the quiescing of the N in an original tabă'na. [In the rarer תְבֹאִינֵהְ (cf. Ges.-Kautzschii, § 76 g) the ... is also ô for â; but here the â—as well as the û in הָקוֹמִינָה and the î in arose through the lengthening of an original short vowel, ă (ŭ, ĭ), under the influence of the prevailing triconsonantal type, since the root syllable is no longer closed when to intervenes before the afformative .]

In such forms as these, in which the characteristic vowel occurs in a closed syllable, some (e. g., A. Müller, ZDMG. 33, p. 699) are inclined to think that this vowel was first lengthened and then shortened again in a closed syllable, so that [[]], e. g., is shortened from *qāmta, which arose from qāmta. This is apparently supported by Syriac habe, etc., Ethiopic Φ9°h qōmka, etc., with long vowel in a closed syllable. In Ethiopic, however, the long vowel in the closed syllable is contrary to rule. Cf. Praetorius, Gram. Aethiopica, 1886, § 15. The long vowel here must be explained. In both Ethiopic and Syriac the long vowel is best explained as due to the analogy of other forms in which the long vowel occurs regularly in an open syllable, e. g., habe, etc.; Φσο qōma, Φσο qōmāt, Φσο qōmū, etc. The Hebrew forms like [ΠΣ] are then to be explained as preserving the originally short vowel unchanged, and are therefore more original.

This biconsonantal theory is the most natural explanation of these classes of roots, and is the one most in accord with philological principles. For if the prevailing triconsonantal type of root is in considerable part a development from a biconsonantal state, it is more than likely that remains of this former state should be preserved in the stages with which we are familar. In language a new order of things is a growth, the older existing at least for a time beside the new, and it is not introduced by unanimous agreement, as it were, of those using it. In all languages in which a growth can be observed a certain number of older forms are preserved. These older forms appear irregular in comparison with the prevailing types. To consider the

قهت This conclusion is supported by the corresponding Arabic forms quinta, stc., in which the vowels are also short. The shortness is original. Their quality, however is secondary. One would expect to find a in the root syllable, as in Hebrew. Wellhausen has correctly explained the # and i as due to the characteristic vowels # and f in the impf. يبين japûm. Of course in the case of intrans. verbs like الله 'be long' (طالت tulta), الله ' cease' (خال zuta), it should occasion no surprise that the original intrans. characteristic vowels are retained. Nöldeke, however, has questioned (BzsS., p. 46, n. 2) in this connection : Why, if tilta is the intrans. form, do we not find zîla instead of Jk zâla? By way of answer it will be recalled that such intrans. forms are actually found dialectically; cf. Wright-deGoeje, Arabic Gram. I, 1896, p. 88 D. In general, however, this form (نيل) became the passive in the case of trans. verbs (cf. F. R. Blake's paper, The Internal Passive in Semilic, JAOS., vol. xxii, p. 51 ff.), and when this took place the act. form JE prevailed also in the case of intrans. verbs in forms in which the characteristic vowel occurs in an open syllable (قامت gamat, قامت gama, etc,). In Hebrew also the trans. type prevailed in many verbs that must have been originally intrans. Only אור .בוש . כת and סוב occur as intrans. forms in the perf. The trans, form prevailed to such an extent that we find the trans. vocalization in the case of forms of no having an afformative beginning with a consonant, e. g., מתה and not מתה.

All the forms of the verbs $\gamma''y$ may thus be satisfactorily explained on the biconsonantal theory.

¹ Cf. n. 3, p. 303.

shorter forms of the verbs """ and """ as contractions of regular ones is unphilological"—they are original biconsonantal forms preserved in the historical stages of the Semitic languages."

Accordingly, forms of these verbs with three distinct radicals are a relatively later development. In fact, in case of the roots """ in Hebrew, verbal forms with consonantal " and " are very

י I retain the symbols יו"ץ and "y"y as being customary and convenient, although they are, of course, inaccurate since there was properly no radical in these verbs corresponding to y in שָׁטָל.

³ As Nöldeke pointed out as early as 1862, saying (Orient u. Occid. I, p. 760): "Wir betrachten eben Wurzeln wie qum, sab als werthvolle Überreste einer Zeit in welche die Dreikonsonatigkeit noch nicht bestand." Accordingly these roots have only two radicals. In his more recent statement (BzsS., p. 46 below, 47), however, viz., "Alle historischen semitischen Sprachen behandeln hier doch die Vokalbuchstaben und als Radicale," there is not a little inconsistency. According to this remark, there are practically three radicals. This is open to grave objections in fact, as Nöldeke himself must needs grant, since he admits that the Arabic forms cited by him in support of his statement may be considered secondary.

It is clear from the foregoing that originally no $Pi'\bar{c}l$ intensive stem could be formed in the case of the biconsonantal verbs $\gamma''y$ and y''y, since the $Pi'\bar{c}l$ requires three radicals for its formation. It is not until these roots have been fully assimilated to the triconsonantal form that the $Pi'\bar{c}l$ can be made. In actual fact the $Pi'\bar{c}l$ of verbs $\gamma''y$, as was stated above, does not properly occur in Hebrew. We find in its stead the $Pi'l\bar{c}l$. Also in the verbs mediae geminatae the $Pi'l\bar{c}l$ occurs as the intensive stem, although some regular $Pi'\bar{c}ls$ are found, e.g.,

etc. הלל

With regard to the origin of the Pi'lel there have been a number of different explanations. In general, opinions as to its origin may be divided into two main currents according as it is supposed to have arisen independently in the verbs "y" and "y" the agreement in final form being then accidental, or it

present. e. g., אור. דור, אור. דור, פולי (two gutturals!), etc., proving that if ן was second radical the presence of a guttural in the root did not prevent contraction as is supposed. Roots like אור (יְעָוּלִי) can, therefore, be explained only as a separate class distinct from the roots אין (שוֹלִי). We cannot otherwise account for the difference in meaning between two roots, otherwise identical, like אין (עלוֹר, אין יוֹל (part. plu. fem. עוֹל 'suckle'—the former is triconsonantal with ן as middle radical, the latter biconsonantal.

Cf. Ges.-Kautzsch³, § 67a, ¶ 2; König, Lehrgeb., I, pp. 320, 321.
 Thus Böttcher, Lehrgebäude, § 1016, § 1030, 2; Olshausen, § 251 b, 252, 254; König, Lehrgeb. I, pp. 451 and 349.

arose in the one class and was transferred to the other by analogy. The latter view, that the Pi'lel arose in one class and was transferred to the other, is undoubtedly correct whatever explanation is otherwise adopted. It is the view followed by Ewald, Hartmann, Stade, and Barth, Ewald and Hartmann believing that the Pi'lel arose in the verbs y"y, while Stade and Barth, although differing in other respects in their explanations of the form, believing that it arose in the verbs y"y.

Stade's explanation, that the $Pi'l\bar{e}l$ arose from the Qal stem $q\bar{a}ma$ by reduplicating the final radical in order to indicate the intensive stem, producing $q\bar{a}m\bar{a}ma$, $q\bar{a}m\bar{i}m$, $q\bar{b}m\bar{e}m$, is untenable especially because the Qal stem is not $q\bar{a}ma$, but $q\bar{a}ma$. The long a becoming a in $q\bar{a}mem$ is thus unaccounted for.

Barth's explanation, which is based on the triconsonantal theory of verbs \(\gamma''\mathcal{y}\), has been accepted by Kautzsch (Gesenius-Kautzsch, Hebrew Gram.\(^{27}\), \(\Sigma 72\) m), although he follows the biconsonantal explanation of the verbs \(\gamma''\mathcal{y}\) (and \(\mathcal{y}''\mathcal{y}\), \(\Sigma 67\)). There are, however, certain difficulties in Barth's exposition, apart from the fact that it is based on the triconsonantal explanation, which render it impossible to accept his theory. His explanation is briefly as follows.

A weighty indication that the Pi'lel (Pô'lel) did not arise in the verbs y"y is the fact that they can and do form a regular Pi'el, e. g., \(\) \(\) etc., in Hebrew as in the other languages. In the verbs \(\)"y, \(Pi'el \) forms do not properly occur because of the difficulty of pronouncing an intervocalic [my italics] sharpened waw [as if a doubled \(\) could be anything but intervocalic!]; only the \(Pi'lel \) with reduplicated final consonant, as in \(\) is found. The reduplication of this final consonant in this stem of roots \(\)"y is supported by a similar reduplication in certain nominal forms in Arabic and Hebrew. In Arabic no verbal form with this reduplication is made in verbs \(\)"y,—only nominal forms occur. These nouns, in which no intensive meaning is present, are the peculiar inf's. like \(\); is 'oo away' is go away'

¹ Lehrbuch8, §§ 121a, 125a.

² Op. cit., p. 2, 3.

³ Hebrew Gram., § 155 c, d.

^{*} Die Pölël-Conjugation und die Pöläl-Participien in Semitic Studies in Honor of Alexander Kohut, Berlin, 1897, p. 83-93, especially p. 84.

לים (יצון med. i), אוֹנינֹג 'be' (ישור med. u), etc.; the two inf's. איניני 'rule', איניני 'be pregnant'; and the broken plurals 'pregnant' and 'pregnant' and שבלים 'barren for a long time (camels),' all from roots med. wano and med. yod. In the case of roots med. geminatae no corresponding formations occur. In Hebrew the nouns אוֹניון 'pleasure', (אוֹנִין) 'spark' (Arabic אוֹנְיוֹן) 'spark' (from roots אינינין 'spark' (Arabic אוֹנין) 'spark' from 'ניון 'spark' (צין 'spark') 'spark' (צין 'צין 'spark'). This may be formed on the analogy of its synonym אוֹנין בער לינינין for this single instance, formations in Semitic corresponding to the Pi'lel are always from roots 'ע"ץ'.

The same result is, according to Barth, arrived at from a consideration of the Hebrew participles עולל, שוכב, with which he says שולל and the uncertain שולל are connected as regards formation. On שולל he lays little stress, since its meaning, and hence its root, is obscure. These participles are not intensive in meaning, but are simply Qal. Trans. in force, although having an apparently pass. or intrans. vowel - in the second syllable, they are really qattal forms represented in Hebrew by בנב. הוא. etc., in strong roots; by ביד , דין in roots med. i. Accordingly from roots med. u of which no gattal form occurs the original form of these participles was gawwam. A "sharpened" w being avoided in Hebrew more than a "sharpened" j [?], the doubled w was given up, being replaced by the reduplication of the following radical, so that gawwam became gawmam, gomam, the change of aw to 6 being similar to that מות from מותי in

Like these participles the $Pi^il\bar{e}l$ is to be explained. From the $qitt\bar{e}l$ must originally have been $qaww\bar{e}m$ with \bar{a} for \bar{i} in the first syllable. The intervocalic sharpened w was avoided by substituting the reduplication of the final radical so that from $qaww\bar{e}m$, $qawm\bar{e}m$ becoming $q\delta m\bar{e}m$ arose.

In this explanation there is little that is convincing. That the nominal forms like بَيْنُونَة, etc., have in Arabic a reduplicated final consonant like the Pi'lel proves nothing for this verbal stem in Hebrew since the origin of these forms is obscure

and a matter of dispute. Barth's explanation of them is no better than that of the grammarians which he rejects. He says' that بيون , e. g., arose from بيون, beside which it occurs, because the phonetic sequence -uit was unpleasant. This was obviated by inserting a consonant identical with the last one after the i so that we get buinun. In the first syllable of this form, " was changed to ", and thus bajnunut arose. The changes that Barth assumes here are all unsupported by similar phenomena elsewhere, and are therefore entirely gratuitous. It may be that the forms like بَيْنُونَة arose from an analogical combination of the two regular inf's. like بين and أبين and be true there is no organic reduplication in these forms. At any rate there is nothing in forms like بينونة, about the origin of which nothing is really known, that is like the Pi'lel, except the reduplicated final radical. Similarly the isolated forms prove nothing. حُولُكُ , سُودُدُّ , عُوطُطُ

In Hebrew the nominal forms נְצְלֵיץ בִּירוֹר נִירוֹך . מְירוֹר נִירוֹך . are entirely too few to base any conclusions upon. Since נְצִוֹץ is from a root """ and there are only two other examples of this formation, it is just as possible to conclude that the formation originated in roots """ and were transferred to those med. u, especially since the root of הַירוֹר . which occurs only in Job. 41, 11, does not occur as a verb in Hebrew.

¹ Die Nominalbildung in den Semitischen Sprachen, Leipzig, 1889, 1891, pp. 211, 212.

² In the 18th ed. Barth's explanation was given.

translates, "It is good that a man should both hope and wait quietly (סומים). etc." In Is. 47, 5, סוד is clearly an adverb. Moreover the change of i to in DDi which Barth assumes is unexplained. This leaves only the two forms עוֹלל and עוֹלל upon which to base any conclusions. This would be precarious even if Barth had correctly explained them. But granting that they were originally guttal formations as he says, there is no support for the supposition that the "intervocalic sharpened w," which must originally have been present, e. g., quiridin, in verbs "med. w," was any more unpleasant to the ear or difficult to pronounce in Hebrew in case of forms "med. ir" than in forms "med. j," e. g., דָין עיר. We find a considerable number of forms with doubled ן, e. g., עור , יעול , עול , עור. etc., and in verbs "5 the first radical) is regularly doubled in the Niph. impf., imv., and inf., e. g., אָדָע, etc. In the case of forms like עות. עור etc., Barth tries to obviate this difficulty by the remark' "Wurzeln mit durchweg cons. behandelten w, . . . , gehören nicht hierher." There is, however, no reason why "die Wurzeln mit . . . cons. . . . w gehören nicht hierher." There can be no difference between original w in yawwdm, if such there was (which the biconsonantal theory denies: cons. I that appears in roots ""y is secondary), and that in רוח . עות . עול. etc., where appears everywhere as a consonant, cf. König, Lehrgebäude I, p. 453. The case of the Niph's. like יורע Barth does not consider. Moreover even though a doubled w were objectionable in Hebrew, as the preceding shows it was not, there is no parallel for reduplicating a radical in compensation for the lack of doubling in another. approved method of compensation for the omission of doubling is to heighten the short vowel preceding the doubled consonant, as is done in countless instances in the case of the article, the Niph. impf., imv., and inf. of verbs primae gutt., e. g., יעמד, העמד, etc. Accordingly it is impossible to assume that an original qawwam became qawmēm.

. Similarly the Pi'lel stem cannot be explained as coming from an original quweem (quweem) becoming qomem. In fact it is

Die Pôlel-Conjugation, p. 90, n. 3.

absolutely impossible to assume such a verbal form as quwwēm in roots """, as it was shown above that these roots had no middle radical. Consequently no form like quwwēm, etc., ever existed in Hebrew; the forms יַלָּיָם. עַּרָּרַ etc., with doubled and, are not Hebrew.

In the imperfect, however, as well as the forms agreeing with it in structure, viz., the imv. and inf., the regular forms are DD', etc. Here the original a after the first radical is retained throughout. i sabbēb accordingly would become i sabēb, with a lengthened from a in compensation, as soon as the doubling of the second radical is given up. The a is then obscured to b, as frequently in Hebrew, and hence the form DD'. From the impf. the b was then transferred to the perf., e. g., DD'.

That there is a tendency to avoid the occurrence of three identical consonants in two successive syllables as in the Pi'ēl of verbs """, not only in Hebrew but in other languages, is seen from the fact that in classical Arabic beside such forms as تَقَضُى , تَقَضَى , تَقَضَى , تَقَضَى , تَقَضَى , تَقَضَى , تَقَضَى , مَدُدْت , etc., with doubled 2d radical identical with the 3d, we find مَدُيْت , مَدُدُت , etc., with the 3d radical replaced by the diphthong ai, on account of the

¹ So also König, Lehrgeb. I, p. 349, in the case of verbs y"y.; Bickell, § 116; and Land § 55 (two latter quoted by König).

³ In this explanation I have followed the principles established by Prof. Haupt, viz., that the impf. is older than the perf. (cf. his article in *Jour. Royal Asiatic Soc.*, New Series X, 1878, pp. 244-252), and that the origin of verbal forms is to be sought in the impf. as the more original form.

"heaping up" of consonants. Cf. Fleischer, Kleinere Schriften I, p. 138; Wright-deGoeje, Arabic Gram. I, p. 69 C. In modern Arabic even the simple Qal forms like with repeated consonant are given up, and forms like only are used. In fact modern Arabic goes even farther in the case of such forms, using the form of verbs tertiae instead of those mediae geminatae, e. g., مَدُيْتُ for مُدُيْتُ.

The Pi'lèl is therefore formed on the basis of the Pi'èl of verbs """; the doubling of the second radical is given up on account of the tendency to avoid a succession of three identical consonants in two successive syllables, and the preceding short ä is lengthened in compensation to å, and this is further obscured to ô. The corresponding passive form, the Pi'lal, has ä in the second syllable, e. g., סובר יסובר The indication of the distinction between act. and pass. by i (ë in Hebrew) and ä, respectively, is regular in Arabic in the impf., not only of the intensive stems II, III, but also of the IV, VII, VIII, and X forms, e. g., II form

"""

act.,

pass., etc.

From the verbs y"y the Pi'lel was transferred to the verbs y"y.

¹ Cf. Spitta, Gram. des arab. Vulgärdialectes von Aegypten, Leipzig, 1880, p. 216.

Contributions to Comparative Philippine Grammar.'—By Frank R. Blake, Ph.D., Johns Hopkins University, Baltimore, Md.

INTRODUCTION.

The languages of the Philippine Islands so far as they are known form a closely related group of tongues belonging to the great Malayo-Polynesian family, which embraces the languages of practically all the islands between the east coast of Asia and the west coast of America south of 30° north latitude, with the exception of Papua and Australia, and also includes the languages spoken on the Malay peninsula at the south-east-ern extremity of the continent of Asia, and on the island of Madagascar off the coast of Africa.

¹ In the spelling of Philippine words in this paper, k is used instead of the older c and qu; g instead of gu before i, e; w instead of consonantal u before a vowel; i for initial g before a consonant; but with these exceptions it has seemed best to retain the traditional orthography. As in most of the languages the accent of words is not given, the accent marks have been omitted throughout, except where they indicate a difference in meaning, and in the case of f and f in Tagalog, which indicate a final glottal catch (cf. below, p. 335). For the reformed spelling in Tagalog, cf. the foot-notes to my paper, The Expression of Case by the Verb in Tagalog, in this volume of the Journal.

The languages of the Negritos, the diminutive black people who live in scattered tribes in the interior mountain ranges of the larger islands, and who are probably the remnant of the aborigines of the Archipelago, are said by certain Spanish authorities (cf. El Archipiélago Filipino, Washington, 1900, vol, 1, p. 229; Lacalle y Sánchez, Tierras y razas del archipiélago filipino, Manila, 1886, p. 246) to be entirely dif- 1 ferent from those of the other inhabitants of the islands. These authorities state furthermore that the idioms of all the Negritos practically constitute one language, and that this language is of monsyllabic structure as opposed to the dissyllabic structure of the Malay tongues. However true this may have been originally, at the present day it is certain that those Negrito dialects about which anything is known are very similar in vocabulary and grammatical structure to the other Philippine languages. It is probable, however, that the Negritos have in such cases more or less completely adopted the languages of the neighboring Malay tribes (cf. A. B. Meyer, Die Philippinen, II. Negritos, Dresden, 1893 (Königl. ethnogr. Museum zu Dresden, ix), p. 86 ff.

It is perhaps useless to hazard any conjectures as to the primitive seat of the Malayo-Polynesians, whose ancient history is practically a sealed book, but it seems most likely that the cradle of the race was on some of the numerous islands which it now inhabits, possibly some of the large islands in the vicinity of the Malay peninsula.

From this birthplace the ancient Malayo-Polynesians, forced doubtless by the increase in population, must have spread out in a series of waves or swarms, just as in the case of the primitive Indo-Europeans and Semites. Crossing at first by means of their canoes over the comparatively short stretches of sea between their home and the neighboring islands, they gradually pushed further and further out into the unknown, passing from island to island until they had occupied almost all the available land space of the Pacific. Some of the islands they probably found unoccupied, in others they must have come in contact with an inferior black race similar to that inhabiting Papua and Australia, as is shown by the remnants of this race which are found pushed back into the interior mountain ranges of some of the larger islands, notably the Philippines.

The peopling of the Malayo-Polynesian territory probably took place in three great waves or series of waves, to which correspond the three grand divisions of tha Malayo-Polynesian languages, viz., the Polynesian, the Melanesian, and the Malay. The 180th meridian forms approximately the boundary between the Polynesian and Melanesian divisions from the north as far south as the latitude of the Fiji islands, practically all the languages spoken east of this line being Polynesian. Further south the line bends to the west, the native language of New Zealand belonging to the Polynesian division. West of the dividing line the Melanesian division extends in a north-westerly direction from the Fiji islands on the south, including the languages of the principal islands of Melanesia and Micronesia. The Malay embraces the languages of the Malay peninsula, the East India islands, the Philippines, and Madagascar.

The Philippine languages, then, may be more accurately defined as a subdivision of the Malay branch of the Malayo-Polynesian family of speech.

The estimated number of Philippine languages varies according to the different authorities. The well known Spanish Fili-

pinologist W. E. Retana, in his latest bibliographical work on the Philippines, enumerates twenty-five different idioms; the great Philippine specialist, Professor Ferdinand Blumentritt, of Leitmeritz in Bohemia, in his brief survey of Philippine races and languages, mentions at least thirty; while in an encyclopediac work on the Philippines prepared by the Jesuits, 'El Archipiélago Filipino,' the number given exceeds fifty.

Of many of the languages enumerated in the larger estimates, practically nothing is known but the name, and it is quite possible that many of these names are simply alternate designations of the better known languages, or, at most, designations of some slightly variant dialect. Beginning at the extreme north of the Archipelago, the languages about which anything definite is known are as follows.

Batan is the language of the Batan and Babuyan islands to the north of Luzon.

On the island of Luzon, Tagalog, the most important and best known of the Philippine languages, is spoken from coast to coast, in the middle region of the island, in the latitude of Manila Bay. On the west coast its territory does not extend north of the Bay, but on the east it reaches as far north as the province of Isabela, the most northerly but one of the provinces on the east coast, in which is situated the town of Palanan, where Aguinaldo was captured by General Funston. On the south and south-east it extends some distance down into what might be called the tail of Luzon, trenching on the domain of Bikol, which occupies the remainder of the southern part of the island. In the region north and west of the Tagalog district are spoken a number of languages. Ibanag prevails in the northeast, in the valley of the Cagayan river, the greatest tobaccoraising district in the island; Ilokan occupies the north and west coasts, extending as far south as the gulf of Lingayen, between which and the Bay of Manila are found Pangasinan, Tino or Zambal, and Pampangan. In the mountainous district of the interior are spoken the various Igorot dialects, among which

¹ Catálago abreviado de la biblioteca filipina, Madrid, 1898.

³ Cf. List of Native Tribes of the Philippines and of the languages spoken by them, trans. by O. T. Mason in Report of Smithsonian Inst. for the year ending June, 1899; Washington, 1901, pp. 527-547.

Washington, 1900; cf. vol. 1, pp. 1-148 passim.

it is probable that Gaddán, Ginaán, Ilongot, and Isinay are to be classed.1

On the Bisayan islands, which lie between Luzon and Mindanao, and on the north and east coasts of the latter island, Bisayan is spoken in a number of different dialects.²

Sulu is used by the Moros of the Sulu subarchipelago, which extends from the western extremity of Mindanao towards Borneo. The Moro tribes of Mindanao, which occupy parts of the west and southwest of that island, speak two almost identical dialects, Magindanao and Malanao. Of the numerous other idioms reported as spoken on Mindanao, we know practically nothing about any except Bagobo, which is found near the great volcano Apo in the south-eastern part of the island, and Tiruray, which occupies a district near the Moro territory in the south-west.

The island of Mindoro, which lies to the south of Luzon and west of the Bisayas, forms the domain of Mangyan, about which, so far as I know, nothing has yet been published. The principal language of the Calamianes and the long narrow island of Palawan, which form a chain stretching from Mindoro to the south-west towards Borneo, is Tagbanwa, of which the idioms of Agutaya and Cuyo, two small islands between Palawan and the Bisayas, are perhaps simply dialects, though they are usually given as distinct languages.

The tribes that speak these languages fall into three general groups according to their religion. Those that speak Batan, Ibanag, Ilokan, Pangasinan, Zambal, Pampangan, Tagalog, Bikol, Bisayan, Agutayan, and Koyuvan are Christians; the Sulus, Magindanaos, and Malanaos are Mohammedans; while the remaining tribes mentioned are still pagans.

Three different alphabets are in use in the Archipelago, viz.

1) that of the pagan Tagbanwas and Mangyans; 2) that of the

¹ Cf. Report of the Philippine Commission, 1903, Part 2, p. 780.

Cf. my paper The Bisayan Dialects, JAOS. xxvi, 1905, pp. 120-136.
 Cf. Blumentritt, The Philippines, trans. by D. J. Doherty, Chicago,

^{1900,} p. 24.

⁴ The Mangyan alphabet, however, is treated in the following, viz., Blumentritt, Die Mangianenschrift von Mindoro, Braunschweig, 1896; A. B. Meyer, Schadenberg and Foy, Die Mangianenschrift von Mindoro, Berlin, 1895=Abhandl. u. Berichte d. Königl. zoolog. u. anthropolethnogr, Museums zu Dresden, No. 15.

Mohammedan tribes, the Arabic alphabet with some additional signs to denote some peculiar native sounds; 3) the Roman alphabet introduced by the Spaniards, in which all the languages of the Christian tribes, and all those of pagan tribes which have been reduced to writing by Spanish missionaries, are written.

At the time of the Spanish conquest, the principal of the now Christian tribes possessed alphabets that are practically identical with those of the Tagbanwas and Mangyans, and it is probable that the Mohammedan tribes originally had similar alphabets. These ancient alphabets have in both cases been superseded by that of the race whose religion has been adopted. In the Mohammedan tribes no trace of them has been preserved, and their use in the Christian tribes seems to have died out about the middle of the eighteenth century.

The archetype of these natives alphabets seems to have been of Indian origin. As in the Indian alphabets, every consonantal character without addition represents the consonant followed by the vowel a, the other vowels being indicated by secondary marks. There was no way of expressing a consonant without a following vowel, hence such a consonant was omitted in writing.

¹ Similarly there are some additional characters in the Arabic alphabet adapted to Malay, Persian, Turkish, and Hindustani, cf. Marsden, A Gram. of the Malayan Language, London, 1812, p. 1 f.; Salemann und Shukovski, Persische Gram. Berlin, 1889, § 1; A. Müller, Türkische Gram. Berlin, 1889, § 5; Vinson, Manuel de la langue hindoustani, Paris 1899, p. 5. In like manner the Amharic alphabet is the Ethiopic with some additional characters to denote some peculiar Amharic sounds, while Coptic is written in the Greek uncial alphabet with seven additional characters borrowed from Demotic: cf. Praetorius, Die Amharische Sprache, Halle, 1879, p. 17, § 1 a; Steindorff, Koptische Grammatik, 2^{te} ed., Berlin, 1904, p. 5.

² Cf. Marcillo y Martin, Estudio de los antiguos alfabetos filipinos, Malabón, 1895.

³ Totanes in his Arte de la lengua tagala, Sampaloc, 1745, states that at his time very few natives could read this alphabet, and that hardly any could write it: cf. the later edition, Binondo, 1865, p. 1.

⁴ This defect was remedied by the Austin friar Francisco Lopez, who in his Ilokan catechism (1621) written in Tagalog characters made use of a diacritical mark, similar in its nature to the Sanskrit virāma or Arabic sukūn, to indicate a consonant standing alone; cf. El Archipielago Filipino, vol. 1, p. 227.

The Roman alphabet, which is used in writing the native languages, was formerly conformed to the peculiarities of Spanish orthography, but lately a number of improvements in spelling have been introduced, the most important being the use of k for c and qu, and w for consonantal u.

The Philippine languages have been influenced to some extent, principally in their vocabulary, by the languages with which they have come in contact. The vocabularies of some of them, notably Tagalog and Bisayan, contain, in common with the other Malayan languages, a number of Sanskrit words, e. g., Tagalog and Bisayan basa 'read' (San. bhāṣā 'languages'), halaga 'price' (San. argha).

The languages spoken by the Mohammedan tribes, the most important of which are Magindanao and Sulu, contain a number of Arabic words, e. g., Magindanao and Sulu dunia 'world' (Arabic دنيا dunia), Mag. alatala, alahutaala, Sulu allahtaala 'God' (Arabic الله تعالى allahu ta'ala 'God, may he be exalted').

The Christian tribes have adopted a considerable body of Spanish terms, e. g., Dios 'God,' pade, pare 'priest.'

A few Chinese words are found in Tagalog as designations of things specifically Chinese, e. g., cha or sa 'tea' (Chin. tcha), miki 'a kind of vermicelli' (Chin. mi-ki).

At present the various languages are being subjected to the influence of English, and English words will probably be more or less extensively borrowed. Already in the northern part of Luzon the English phrase 'no got' is in common use.

Spanish, besides influencing to some degree the native vocabularies, has also left its mark in a few cases on the grammatical construction. In Tagalog, for example, the cumbersome native method of coordinating pronouns and numerals, as in kami niya 'he and I' literally 'his we,' has been more or less completely

¹ Cf. H. Kern, Sanskritische woorden in het Tagala, Bijdragen tot de Taal-, Land- en Volkenkunde van Nederlandsch Indië, 4^{4*} Volg., D. 4, 1880, pp. 535-564; Sanskritische woorden in het Bisaya, ibid., 4^{4*} Volg., D. 5, pp. 128-135; T. H. Pardo de Tavera, El Sanscrito en la lengua agala, Paris, 1887: cf. also my paper, Sanskrit Loan-words in Tagalog, JHU. Circs., No. 163, pp. 68-65.

² Cf. A. E. Jenks, *The Bontoc Igorot*, Manila, 1905 (=Ethnological Survey Publications, vol. 1), p. 158.

driven from the field by the simpler Spanish construction with copulative conjunction.

The materials for the study of the Philippine languages consist of texts, collections of conversational phrases, grammars, dictionaries, and vocabularies. Grammars and dictionaries of some sort exist of most of the languages mentioned; the others must be studied without these helps. The languages that are included in the following comparative studies are, viz., Tagalog, Bisayau (Cebuan, Hiliguayna, Samaro-Leytean, Harayau), Bikol, Pampangan, Pangasinan, Ilokan, Igorot (Nabaloi, Bontok), Ibanag, Batan, Magindanao, Sulu, and Bagobo.²

GENERAL FEATURES.

The most important characteristics which the Philippine languages possess in common are the following.

Words are made up of roots and particles. Roots are mainly dissyllabic and indicate nominal or verbal ideas; practically all

¹ Cf. W. G. Seiple, The Tagalog Numerals, JHU. Circs., No. 163, pp. 79-81.

² The principal grammars and dictionaries employed are, viz.: Totanes. Arte de la lengua tagala, reimpr., Binondo, 1865; Campomanes, Lecciones de gramática hispano-tagala, Manila, 1872; Minguella, Ensayo de gramatica hispano-tagala, Manila, 1878; Noceda, Vocabulario de la lengua tagala, 8ª ed., Manila, 1860; Zueco, Metodo del Dr. Ollendorff adaptado al bisaya, Manila, 1871; Bermejo, Arte conpendiado de la lengua cebuana, 2º ed., Tambobong, 1894; Mentrida and Aparicio, Arte de la lengua bisaya-hiligayna, Tambobong, 1894; Lozano, Cursos de lengua panayana, Manila, 1876; Figueroa, Arte del idioma visaya de Samar y Leyte, 2ª ed., Binondo, 1872; Encarnación, Diccionario bisaya-español, 3ª ed., Manila, 1885; San Augustín and Crespo, Arte de la lengua bicol, Manila, 1879; Bergaño, Arte de la lengua pampanga, 2ª ed. (?), Sampaloc, 1736; Pellicer, Arte de la lengua pangasinana, reimpr., Manila, 1862; Cosgaya, Diccionario pangasinan-español, Manila, 1865; Naves, Gramática hispano-ilocana, 2ª ed., Tambobong, 1892; Carro, Vocabulario iloco-español, 2ª ed., Manila, 1888; Sheerer, The Nabaloi dialect, Ethnological Survey Publications, vol. II, Part II, pp. 95-171, Manila, 1905; Jenks, The Bontoc Igorot, vol. 1 of series cited, Manila, 1905, pp, 227-248; De Cuevas, Arte nuevo de la lengua ybanág, 2ª ed., Manila, 1854; (Batan grammar) cf. Retana, Archivo del bibliófilo filipina, vol. II, Madrid, 1896, pp. xxxviii-xl; Juanmarti, Gramática de la lengua de Magindanao, Manila, 1892; Cowie, English-Sulu-Malay Vocabulary, London, 1893; Gisbert, Diccionario bagobo-español and español-bagobo, Manila, 1892.

may be used unchanged as significant words; e. g., Tagalog tawo 'man,' ibig 'wish, want.' Particles are mainly monosyllabic, some being independent words indicating pronominal and adverbial ideas, others being used only in combination with roots to form derivative nouns and verbs, e. g., Tagalog ka 'thou,' na 'now, already,' mag, a prefix used to form active verbs, e. g., mag-laró 'play, sport' from laró. From these ultimate components of the language other words are formed:

a) by reduplication of the root, e. g., Tagalog susulat 'will

 a) by reduplication of the root, e. g., Tagalog susulat 'will write' from sulat 'write;'

 b) by the combination of two or more particles, e. g., Tagalog na-man 'also,' from na 'now' and man 'even;'

c) by the combination of the root with one or more derivative particles, e. g., Tagalog s-um-ulat 'write (imper. and inf.), s-in-ulat-an 'was written on,' from sulat.

These languages are practically non-inflectional, there being no inflection except in some few instances in the pronoun and the verb, the variation being regularly at the beginning of the word. Pronouns are varied to express case, as a general thing three cases being distinguished, a nominative, a so-called genitive that is also the case of the agent and instrument, a so-called oblique that is used to represent all locative relations, place where, place whither, and place whence, including the dative and ablative of persons; e. g., Tagalog ito 'this,' nito 'of this,' dito 'in or to this.' In the verb differences in voice, mode and tense may be indicated by change of the initial sound of a form, e. g., Tagalog mag-larô 'to play,' naglarô 'played,' paglarô, passive stem of same verb, where m indicates the infinitive, n the preterit, and p the passive.

There is no formal distinction of gender even in the case of the pronouns of the third person. Whenever it is necessary to indicate the gender expressly, words meaning 'male' and 'female' must be used in connection with the epicene noun or pronoun, e. g., from Tagalog kabayo 'horse,' kabayo-ng lalaki 'stallion,' and kabayo-ng babayi 'mare;' except in the case of certain nouns of relationship, where different words are used to express difference in gender, e. g., Tagalog ama 'father,' ina 'mother.' Even with these nouns the same word often denotes a relative of either sex, and the words for 'male' and 'female' must be

used when it is necessary to avoid ambiguity, e. g., Tagalog anak 'son or daughter,' anak na lalaki 'son,' anak na babayi 'daughter."

These languages possess what might be called personal articles, i. e., words of a particular nature which are placed before names of persons to denote case, e. g., Tagalog si Pedro 'Pedro,' ni Pedro 'of Pedro.' Many of them also have an article, the so-called inclusive article, which is placed before the name of a person to denote that with him are included those who are associated with him in any way, as his companions, friends, family, etc., e. g., Tagalog sina Pedro 'Pedro and his associates.'

The pronoun of the first person plural has regularly two forms, one of which includes, while the other excludes, the person addressed; for example, a Tagalog might say to a Spainard tayo-ng kristiano 'we Christians,' using the inclusive 'we' tayo, but kami-ng Tagalog 'we Tagalogs,' using the exclusive 'we' kami.

An extensive use is made of certain particles called ligatures to connect words, phrases, and sentences which stand to one another in the relation of modifier and modified. They stand for example between adjective and noun; verb and adverb; noun or verb and dependent clause, in this case playing the part

¹ These remarks apply also to the expression of gender in Malay, (cf. Marsden, op. cit. p. 29; Crawfurd, A Gram. and Dict. of the Malay Lang., London, 1852, vol. i, p. 10; Seidel, Praktische Gram. der Malayischen Sprache, Hartleben's Verlag [Wien, Pest, Leipzig], p. 18); and in Javanese (cf. Bohatta, Praktische Gram. der Javanischen Sprache, Hartleben's Verl.), p. 31.

^{*}Personal articles are found also in Malay and Madagascan; in Malay it is si, cf. Favre, Grammaire de la langue malaise, Vienne, 1876, pp. 59, 92. The principal ones in Madagascan are i and ra, cf. Brandstetter, Tagalen und Madagassen, Luzern, 1902, p. 79 f.; Parker, A concise Gram. of the Malagasy Language, London, 1883, p. 47.

³ The same distinction is made also in Malay between kita (inc.) and kami (exc.), and in Madagascan between isika (inc.) and izahay (exc.); cf. Marsden, op. cit., p. 45; Parker, op. cit., p. 39.

⁴ Traces of similar particles are found in Madagascan and some other Malayan languages, cf. Brandstetter, Tag.~u.~Mad., pp. 76, 83. In languages of other families, similar particles are the connective i in modern Persian (cf. Salemann and Shukovski, op.~cit., p. 30, § 16), and the genitive sign n in Egyptian and Coptic (cf. Ermann, $\ddot{A}gyptische~Gram.$ 2^{16} Aufl., Berlin, 1902, p. 64; Steindorff, op.~cit., pp. 79 f., 83).

of relative pronouns and subordinate conjunctions; e. g., in Tagalog tawo-ng mabuti 'good man,' mabuti-ng ginawa 'well done,' tawo-ng minamahal nang lahat 'a man who is esteemed by all,' the modifier and modified are connected by the ligature -ng.

The ideas of 'to be in a place' and 'to have' are not expressed by verbs, but by particles which may be called quasi-verbs, in Tagalog na, may, e. g., any libro'y na sa lamesa 'the book is on the table;' ito-ny tano'y may asawa 'this man has a wife.'

Verbs are generally made by combining derivative particles with the root. These particles are very numerous and their uses very various. By means of them voice, mode, and tense are distinguished, and also a variety of other modifiations of the verbal meaning, such as the causative, emphatic, etc.; for example from a root aral in Tagalog are formed,

um-aral 'teach.'

magsi-aral 'teach (of many).'

mag-aral 'study, learn.'

mang-aral 'teach earnestly.'

mang-aral 'preach.'

maka-aral 'teach earnestly.'

ungm-aral 'taught.'

magpa-aral 'order, command aralin 'be taught.'

to teach.'

inaral 'was taught.'

maki-aral 'join with someone pag-aral-in 'be studied.'
in teaching.' pinag-aral 'was studied.'

pa-aral 'ask for instruction.' etc., etc.

Perhaps the most salient feature of these languages is the prevailing use of the passive construction, active verbs not being used except when the agent is the most emphatic element of the sentence; for example in Tagalog in the sentence 'he is reading a book,' 'he' is more emphatic than the indefinite 'book,' hence the active is used, viz., siya'y bungmabasa nang libro, while in the sentence 'he is reading this book' the definite object is ordinarily more emphatic than the agent, hence the passive is employed, e. g., ito-ng libro'y binabasa niya.'

In the present imperfect state of our knowledge of the Philippine languages any complete classification and subdivision is of course impracticable, but it is possible nevertheless to distinguish certain general groups.

¹Cf. my paper, The Expression of Case by the Verb in Tagalog, in this volume of the Journal, pp. 183-189.

The most important of these is a Northern Group, including the principal languages of North Luzon and the islands to the north, viz., Batan, Ibanag, Ilokan, Pangasinan, and the Igorot dialects as far as they are known; and a Central Group, including Tagalog, Bikol, and Bisayan. Between these two groups lies Pampangan, which partakes in a measure of the peculiarities of both. In the south the dialects of the Magindanao and Malanao Moros belong together, while Bagobo and Sulu occupy isolated positions, Sulu being more like Malay than any of the other Philippine languages. The principal phonetic difference between the languages of the Northern and Central Groups is that the former have no h sound (cf. below, p. 335).

The principal differences in grammatical structure between these two groups are the following.

In general the languages of the Northern Group form their plural by reduplication of the singular, e. g., Ilok. balay 'house,' balbalay 'houses.' The languages of the Central Group employ a special prepositive particle manĝa for this purpose, e. g., Tag. bahay 'house,' manĝa bahay 'houses.'

The Northern Group possesses the ligature a which is not found as such in the Central Group, e. g., Ilok. naimbag a tao 'good man.'

In the Northern Group the personal pronouns have in general two forms of the nominative, an emphatic and a non-emphatic form; for example, 'I' in Ilokan is represented by siak when emphatic, by ak when not emphatic. In the Central Group as a regular thing only one form of the nominative is employed, e. g., Tag. ako 'I.' On the other hand, in the Central Group these pronouns have both a prepositive and a postpositive form of the genitive, e. g., Tag. aking ulo and ulo ko 'my head;' while in the Northern Group only postpositive forms are found, e. g., Ilok. balay ko 'my house,' aso-k 'my dog.'

As a general thing the languages of the Northern Group distinguish only two tense forms of the verb, viz., a preterit and a form to represent all the other tenses, e. g., Ilok., mangaramid, pret. nangaramid 'do, make.' In the Central Group as many as four tense and mode forms are distinguished, viz., a modal, used for infinitive, imperative, and subjunctive; a future; a preterit; and a present: e. g., Tag.,

maglar6 'to play.' naglar6 'did play.'
maglalar6 'will play.' naglalar6 'is playing.'

The languages of the Central Group possess three passive forms, by means of which not only the direct object of the verbal action may be made subject, but also words standing in other case relations of the verb, such as dative, instrumental, ablative, etc.¹

In the Northern Group this function of the verb has been still further developed, the languages of this group possessing not only three passives, but also a number of other passive verbal forms called verbals, made on the basis of the verbal noun of action with prefixed pag, pan, etc. These take the place to some extent of the *i* and an passives of the Central Group. Examples of these forms in Ilokan are,

daytoy ti pagpunas-mo kadagiti pinggan 'wash the plates with this (this the washing-instrument thine to the plates).'

ania nga oras ti panagmisa ti pare 'at what hour does the priest celebrate mass (what hour the mass-celebrating-time of the priest)?'

asin ti pagsurataiyo (<*an-yo)* 'to whom are you writing (who the writing-aim yours)?'

Pampangan, which, as was stated above, partakes in a measure of the peculiarities of both the Northern and Central Groups, agrees with the Northern Group in not having the consonant h, and in possessing the ligature a, both emphatic and nonemphatic forms of the nominative, and exclusively postpositive genitive forms of the personal pronouns; but with the Central in possessing more than two tense and mode forms of the verb, viz., future, present, and preterit, and in the absence of the verbals which are so characteristic of the languages of the Northern Group. The plural of the noun is indicated by a special form of the article as often in Ilokan, e. g., ing tawo 'the man,' ding tawo 'the men,' except in the vocative, where it is denoted by prepositive manga, e. g., manga tawo, as in the Central Group. A special characteristic of Pampangan is the large number of forms which the personal pronouns have in the genitive, e. g., under various conditions 'mine' is ko, koo, ke, kee, or da; 'his,' no, noo, ne, nee, or na.

¹ Cf. my paper The Express. of Case by the Verb, cited above.

² In Ilokan the passive endings en and an + the genitive yo 'you (pl.)' give eiyo, aiyo. The phonetics of the process are not entirely clear. The spelling may represent an assimilation of n to y, or perhaps a nasalization of the vowels e and a.

Magindanao seems to be more closely related to the Central Group than to the Northern, forming the plural of its nouns with manga, and making three tense and mode forms, viz., present, preterite, and imperative, e. g., sumulat 'writes,' sinumulat 'wrote,' sulat or panulat 'write (imperative).' It is, however, apparently without h, and possesses the ligature a like the languages of the Northern Group. The most characteristic peculiarity of this language are the forms of the personal pronouns with prefixed or infixed l element (cf. below, p. 372), e. g., laki, salaki 'my,' salkitanu, lekitanu 'we.'

Sulu, like Malay, possesses in the declension of its noun no special plural form or plural particle, and forms its tense by means of auxiliaries, e. g., tōg na aku 'I sleep,' bakas aku matōg 'I have slept.' The ligature, which is so characteristic of all the other Philippine languages, is here comparatively little used.

NOTES ON PHONOLOGY.1

Original Philippine Sounds.

From a comparison of representative words in the various languages it is evident that the primitive Philippine language possessed the following sounds, viz.,

vowels a, i, u or o	Palatals		
Labials p, b, m, w	and	k, g,	3
Dentals t, d, n, l, s	Gutturals	22	g2

Cf. the following comparative list of words in the principal Philippine languages.

	'road'	'moon'	'drink'	'cook'	'five'	'eight'
Tag.	daan	buwan	inum	luto	lima	walo
Bis.	dalan	bulan	inum	luto	lima	walo
Bik.	dalan	bulan	inum	luto	lima	walo
Pamp.	dalan	bulan	inum	luto	lima	walo
Pang.	dalan	bulan	inum	luto	lima	walo
Ilok.	dalan	bulan	inum	luto	lima	walo
Iban.	dalan	tulan	inum	luto	lima	walu
Mag.	lalan		inum	luto	lima	walu
Sulu	dan	bulan	hinom	lutoh	lima	walu

¹ In general the vowels of Philippine words have the Italian pronunciation; the consonants are to be pronounced as in English unless otherwise stated.

^{*} Written $n\tilde{g}$ when it stands at the beginning of a syllable.

	per. art.	'sickness'	'eat'	'sail'	'heaven'
Tag.	si	sakit	kain	layag	langit
Bis.	si	sakit	kaon	layag	langit
Bik.	si		kan	lauag	langit
Pamp.		sakit	kan	layag	
Pang.	si	sakit	kan	layag	
Ilok.	si	sakit	kan	layag	langit
Iban.	si	takit	kan	layag	langit
Mag.	si	sakit	kan	layag	langit
Sulu		sakit		layag	

The diphthongs a_i and a_{ij} also probably formed part of the primitive phonetic system; a_i is usually written a_{ij} , a_i , and a_{ij} , a_i or a_{ij} ; of.

	'house'	'day'	'lake'
Tag.	bahay	arao	
Bis.	balay	adlao	danao
Bik.		aldao	
Pamp.	balay		
Pang.	baley'	ageo1	
Ilok.	balay	aldao	danao
Iban.	balay	aggau	
Mag.	walay		lanau
Sulu	bai	adlau	(lanau
Duit	Dar	autau	danau

To these sounds are probably to be added,

- a) an indistinct vowel & (cf. below, p. 331 f.),
- b) r (cf. below, p. 333),
- c) the glottal catch (cf. below, p. 335).

and perhaps h (cf. below, p. 335 f.).

Remarks on the Vowels.

The letters o and u are constantly interchanged in the same language in writing, e. g., Tag. otang, utang 'debt,' and according to the statements of the grammars this graphic difference is represented by a corresponding difference in the pronunciation. Hence it is hardly possible to distinguish between primitive Philippine u and o.

¹ For the significance of this spelling with e, cf. below, p. 331.

There is also a similar interchange between the letters i and e, and the sounds represented by them, e. g., Tag. babayi, babaye 'woman,' but this interchange is so limited in scope, the e corresponding to i rarely occurring, that all such cases are most conveniently referred to primitive Philippine i.

The letters e and o are sometimes used to indicate the contraction of the diphthongs ai and au, but usually in these cases the origin of the e or o is perfectly clear, and there is no chance of confusion with the other e and o. In the Central Group this contraction seems to be sporadic and confined to the final syllable of certain very common words, e. g., Tag. and Bis. mey 'have,' Bik. dey 'not to have,' where the writing ey indicates the pronunciation &; Tag. ikao'y for ikao ay, where the elision of the a of the particle ay points to the pronunciation In Ibanag and Pampangan these diphthongs at the end of a word are regularly contracted before a possessive suffix beginning with a consonant, e. g., Iban. bale-k 'my house' Pamp. balæ-mo 'thy house' from balay 'house'. In Ibanag the diphthong ay is pronounced ei, i. e., the first element is pronounced e and not a, e. g., patay 'dead,' ammay 'rice;' in Pangasinan the first element of both the diphthongs ai and ay seems to be sometimes pronounced as e, as is indicated by the spelling, e. g., baley 'village, house,' ageo 'day.'

Generally speaking, cognate words have the same vowels in all the different languages, a corresponding to a, i to i, o, u to o, u. In a number of words, however, the vowels vary from one language to another, in general, Tagalog i being represented in Bisayan and Bikol by o or u; in Ilokan, Pangasinan, and Magindanao by ë; in Ibanag and Pampangan by a; e. g.,

				(passive	
	'rice'	'hear'	'room'	suffix)	'six'
Tag.	bigas	dingig	silid	-in	anim
Bis.	bugas .	dungug	sulud	-on	unum
Bik.		dangog		-on	anum
Ilok.	bagas	dengeg	silid	-en	innem
Pang.		dengel		en	anem
Mag.	begas			-en	anem
Iban.	baggat			-an	annam
Pamp.				-an	anam

 $^{{}^{1}}$ In this article, unless otherwise stated, o and u, and i and e, are respectively considered as equivalent.

It is quite possible that this varied vocalism is the representation of a fourth primitive Philippine vowel, an indistinct vowel like the Indo-European shewa, which in a similar way is represented by several different vowels in the various Indo-European languages.

In Sulu there is a vowel corresponding to the German n, e. g., tud 'very,' bukün 'it is not.' This, however, seems to be a secondary Sulu development, words containing it having in some cases by-forms with a or o, u, or corresponding to forms with these vowels in the cognate languages, e. g., maising, maisog 'bold, intrepid' (Bis. maisog); daküp, dakap 'embrace' (Malay dakap).

Remarks on the Consonants.

Labials.

A final p in Ibanag regularly becomes the glottal catch (cf. below, p. 336).

In some of the languages of the Northern Group p and b pass at times into the spirants f and v. In Ibanag this change regularly takes place when original p is followed by u or o, e. g., fulu 'ten' (Pang. and Bis. polo, Magin. pulu, etc.). In Nabaloi Igorot p and f are often used interchangeably in the same word, e. g., apil or afil 'different;' in others the p or f respectively are constant, e. g., palit 'dear,' andufit 'soft.'

In Bontoc Igorot, and also in the northern part of the Nabaloi territory, there is a similar interchange between b and f, e. g., Bont. babayi and fafayi 'woman,' Nab. balei and falei 'house.'

In Ibanag, just as pu becomes fu, bu becomes vu, the b, however, being still retained in spelling, e. g., buaya 'cayman.'

The sound v occurs in the one word asivi 'small' in Sulu.

In Magindanao a b sometimes becomes w (written u), e. g., uato 'stone,' uata 'boy,' ualay 'house' (Tag. bato, bata, Bis. balay); but it is sometimes preserved, e. g., babay 'woman,' n\(\tilde{g}ibu'\) 'thousand' (Tag. babayi, libo).

In Nabaloi Igorot original wa regularly becomes gwa (written gua or goa), e. g., gualo 'eight,' asagoa 'spouse' (Tag. walo, asawa).

¹ Cf. Brandstetter, Tag. u. Mad., p. 34.

² Cf. Brugmann, Grundriss der Vergl. Gram. der indogerm. Sprachen, 2¹⁰ Bearb., Strassburg, 1897, Bd. 1, p. 170.

Dentals.

In Ibanag the combination ti regularly becomes si, e. g., sinakao 'robbed' from a root takao with infix in. An original final t regularly becomes the glottal catch (cf. below, p. 336).

A d of the other languages is regularly represented by the affricative ch in Nabaloi Igorot, e. g., chalan 'road,' achalem 'deep' (Ilok. dalan, adalem), and in Bontoc Igorot the two sounds are used interchangeably, as in the place names Chakong or Dakong, Pudpudchog or Pudpuddog.

In Ibanag the combination di when not preceded by α (in which case d > r, cf. below, becomes zi (written ji), e. g., jinakay 'leprous' from the root dakay.

In Ibanag an s not followed by i seems to be regularly changed to t, e. g., ataua 'spouse' (Tag. asava), takit 'sickness' (Tag. sakit) ta 'to, in the, etc.' (Tag. sa); but si the personal article (Tag. si).

One of the most complex chapters of Philippine phonology is that which is concerned with the interrelations of the sounds d, r, l.

In a number of words an Ibanag, Ilokan, Bikol, and Samaro-Leytean r corresponds to a Tagalog, Bisayan (except Sam.-Ley.), Pampangan Pangasinan, Magindanao and Sulu *l*, e. g.,

	' write'	'silver'	'thousand'	'how much?'
Iban.	surat	pirak	ribu	
Ilok.	surat	pirak	ribo	
Bik.	surat	pirak	ribo	pira
SamLe	y. surat		ribo ('mi	llion') pira
Tag.	sulat	pilak	libo	
Bis.	sulat	pilak	libo	pila
Pamp.	sulat		libo	pilan
Pang.	sulat		libo	
Mag.	sulat			pila
Sulu	sulat	pelak		pela

As an original l is in general preserved without change in most of the languages, r is here probably to be regarded as the more original sound.

An original intervocalic l is lost in Tagalog and Sulu; in Tagalog it is represented by the glottal catch between the two vowels, or a secondary h or semi-vowel is developed between

them, e. g., daan 'road,' bahay 'house,' powo 'ten' (Bis. dalan, balay, polo); in Sulu the two vowels are contracted, e. g., dan 'road,' bai 'house,' poh 'ten.'

In Batan such an l seems regularly to become g, e. g., ogo 'head,' pogo 'ten,' bagay 'house,' bugan 'month' (Bis. olo, polo, balay, bulan). The same change is perhaps illustrated in Ibanag, Pangasinan, and Nabaloi piga 'how much?' (Bis. pila). This change from l to g probably passed through the intermediate stages, guttural r, and the guttural sonant spirant like g in the North German pronunciation of tage 'days.' The writing g, indeed, may be simply an imperfect attempt to indicate the latter sound.

In Nabaloi Igorot an l or r of the other languages is often represented by d, e. g., idoko 'Ilokan' (Ilok. iloko), mabadin 'possible' (Ilok. mabalin), sudat 'write' (Ilok. surat, Tag. sulat).

In Batan the change from l to d is also found, e. g., dima 'five,' tatdo 'three' (Bis. lima, tatlo).

An intervocalic d is in many of the languages often changed to r. So in Tagalog, Bisayan, Pampangan, Pangasinan, Ibanag, Nabaloi, Batan, and Sulu; apparently not in Bikol, Ilokan and Magindanao, cf.

Tag. narito 'is here' from dito 'here.' Bis. aruna, duna 'have.'

Pamp. kareni 'to these' from deni 'these.'

Pang. maronong 'wise' from root donong.

Iban. ikarua 'second' from root dua 'two.'

Nab. marikit 'pretty,' cf. Tag. dikit 'beauty.'

Bat. icharua 'second,' cf. Iban. dua 'two.'

Sulu ha ran 'on the road' from dan 'road.'

Ilok. ida 'they' from da.

Palatals and Gutturals.

In Ibanag final k regularly becomes the glottal catch (cf. below, p. 336).

In Nabaloi Igorot k is often changed to the corresponding surd spirant like German ch, which may be represented by x, e. g., ixamen 'mat' (Ilok. ikamen), asixen 'old man' (Pang. asiken).

In Bontoc Igorot k and g are constantly interchanged, e. g., kulid or gulid 'itch,' yeka or yega 'earthquake.'

In Batan a k in juxtaposition to an i sound either before or after it regularly becomes ch, e. g., icha- prefix which forms ordinals, machi- verbal prefix indicating accompaniment (Tag. ika, maki).

A g of the other languages is sometimes represented in Ilokan by r, the change in all probability being the reverse of the process illustrated by the change from l to g (cf. above, p. 334), e. g., buro 'new,' rabiy 'night,' darat 'sand' (Tag. bago, gab-i, dagat 'sea').

In Nabaloi Igorot y becomes regularly dy, e. g., dyo 'your,' adyab 'call' (Ilok. yo, ayab).

Laryngeals.

Under this category the Philippine languages seem originally to have possessed the glottal catch or laryngeal stop, and perhaps the surd spirant h. The glottal catch is not recognized as a separate sound in any of the works on the Philippine languages, but its presence in many languages is indicated by the statements of the grammars, and it probably occurs in all. For example, the Tagalog grammars speak of final vowels with guttural accent, of vowels pronounced separately from the single consonant which precedes them, and state that two juxtaposed vowels stand in different syllables. These statements are to be understood as follows. The hiatus between the two vowels in such a word as doon 'there' is of course identical with the glottal catch: the fact that a vowel following a single consonant begins a new syllable, as for example in gab-i 'night,' indicates that between the two stands the glottal catch, which really begins the second syllable: the so-called guttural accent of a final vowel seems to be really a glottal catch after the vowel; when the final vowel has at the same time the stress accent, the vowel is marked with a circumflex, e. g., wald 'is, has not;' when it is unstressed, with a grave accent, e. g., wikd 'word, language.' The glottal catch in Ibanag resulting from a final stop is of course secondary (cf. below, p. 336).

The spirant h does not occur in Ibanag, Ilokan, Pangasinan, Nabaloi, and Pampangan, but it may have been an original Philippine sound, as it is preserved in the other Philippine languages; cf.

¹ Not given in the list of consonants.

	'wind'	'dear'	'hair'	'before'	'king'
Ilok.	angin		book		ari
Pang.				arap	ari
Nab.			buek		
Pamp.	anĝin	mal			
Tag.	hangin	mahal	buhok	harap	hari

In Sulu a word with vocalic initial sometimes takes a secondary h before it, e. g., hinom 'drink' (general Philippine inum). In Tagalog, Bisayan, and Bikol an h is sometimes inserted between a final vowel and the suffixes an and in (cf. below, p. 337).

Other Phonetic Changes.

The final stops k, p, t, in Ibanag are, according to the statement in the principal Ibanag grammar, not pronounced, but the preceding vowel receives a peculiar aspiration. This clearly points to the fact that these consonants have become the glottal catch, like the final k in Malay. This pronunciation is indicated in the grammar by placing a dash between the final consonant and the preceding word, e. g., a-k 'I,' taki-t' 'sickness.' In the present article, however, the dash will be omitted for the sake of convenience. Before this glottal catch the vowel a is pronounced as o, though a is usually written (but cf. so-k 'I').

A characteristic feature of Ibanag and Ilokan is the doubling of originally single consonants, e. g., Iban. battu 'stone,' annam 'six' (Tag. bato, anim), Ilok. adda 'be' (Malay ada).

In Ibanag the final consonants b, d, g, n are assimilated to an initial consonant in a following word, e. g., kanak ku 'my food' < kanan ku; and all final consonants are pronounced in the same syllable with an initial vowel of a following word, the change from final surd stop to glottal catch not being made in

^{1 &#}x27;... quedan absolutamente sin sonido, y mudas; mas debe darse en la vocal, que les precede, un golpe de aspiracion, que solo la voz de maestro puede espresar, y enseñar debidamente.' Cf. De Cuevas, op. cit., p. 10.

² Cf. Seidel, Prak. Gram. d. Mal. Sprache, p. 5. It is interesting to note that this final glottal catch is written (e. g., افق ana' 'son') which in Arabic in general is equal to k+glottal catch, and which in some modern Arabic dialects has become simply the glottal catch. Cf. Favre, op. cit., p. 12; Marsden, op. cit., p. 11 f.; Wahrmund, Praktische Gram. der neu-arab. Sprache, Giessen, 1861, p. 11.

this case, e. g., mælugak 'I want' < mælug ak, ayata mapia 'great joy' < ayat a mapia.

In Tagalog after a final vowel the a of the particle ay and the conjunction at may be elided, e. g., any tawo'y mabuti (< tawo ay) 'the man is good,' ama't ina (< ama at) 'father and mother.' This elision may also take place after a final n, the n being lost at the same time, e. g., iya'y mabuti (< iyan ay) 'this is good,' amai't ali (amain at) 'uncle and aunt.'

Many contractions and elisions take place in Pampangan, but the statements of the grammar on this subject are very meagre and unsatisfactory; cf., however, kana kita for kana ku ita, iyeni for iya ini, meng for me ing, yang for ya ing, totita for toto ita.

In Tagalog the suffixes an and in are added directly to a word ending in a final vowel with glottal catch, e. g., turo-an 'be taught;' after other final vowels an h is inserted, e. g., sabi-h-in 'be said,' una-h-an 'front part.' The same rule as regards the insertion of the h probably applies also to Bisayan and Bikol.

PRONOUNS DERIVED FROM PARTICLES.

The Philippine pronouns with regard to their origin may be divided into two classes, viz.,

- a) pronouns derived from monosyllabic particles,
- b) pronouns derived from dissyllabic roots.

To the second class belong the indefinite pronouns, except those derived from the interrogatives, e. g., Tag. kaunti 'a little' from the root unti, marami 'much' from the root dami; and the numerals, e. g., Tag. apat 'four,' lima 'five.'

To the first class belong

- a) the ligatures,
 - b) the articles,
 - c) the demonstrative pronouns,
 - d) the interrogative pronouns,
 - e) the personal pronouns.

The present investigation will be confined to the pronouns of the first class, which will be treated in the order named.

Pronouns derived from particles consist either of a simple root particle, or of a root particle combined with other prefixed

VOL. XXVII.

and suffixed particles. The prefixes are usually articular in character, and are employed to express case; the suffixes are ordinarily derived from ligatures which stood originally between the pronoun and the following word. Those pronouns that are inflected distinguish in general three cases (cf. above, p. 324), though sometimes two cases have identical forms.

The Ligatures.

The ligatures that occur in the various languages are the following, viz.:

Tag.	na	-ng	(-n)		ay	-у
Bis. (in gen.)	nĝa	-ng				-у
Bis. (SamLey.)	nga	(-ng)	-n			
Bik.	na	-ng				
Pamp.		-ng	-n	a		
Pang.			-n	a	ya	-y
Ilok.	nga		-n	a		
Iban.	nĝa			a		
Bat.				a		
Ig. (Nab.)				a		
Ig. (Bon.)			-n		ay	
Mag.				a		1
Sulu						i,-y°
Bag.						i³

¹ In the paradigms of the pronouns all those forms that are not given as nominative or genitive in the grammars are grouped under the oblique. As the oblique is often used as the equivalent of the genitive, e. g., Tag. ama nang batà=sa bata-ng ama 'father of the boy,' forms that are really oblique are often given by the grammars under the genitive, but this will occasion little difficulty from a morphological point of view. Sometimes the oblique forms are not given by the grammars, in which case they are probably to be formed by prefixing the oblique of the definite article to the nominative.

² Not specifically mentioned as ligature by the grammars, though examples of both occur.

^{*} Ka is also said to be a relative in the sentence dini doon kagi ka diri nonga olitan 'here are words that it is not proper to reveal;' but it is here in all probability simply the genitive of the definite article used before the following clause, which modifies kagi 'words' just like a noun in the genitive.

The forms with dash are used only after vowels, e. g., Bis. tawo-ng maayo 'good man,' the others, in general, after both vowels and consonants, e. g., Bis. tawo ng̃a maayo 'good man,' maalam ng̃a magtotoon 'learned teacher.' Tagalog ay, -y are used only to join together two elements that stand to each other in the relation of subject and predicate, and then only when the subject precedes, e. g., ang tawo'y mabuti 'the man is good.' Bisayan -y is also sometimes employed in this case, but is also used as the equivalent of the other ligatures.'

The difference between -ng and -n in those languages which possess both is difficult to determine. Often they seem to be used interchangeably; in Pampangan -n is used especially before an indefinite noun, like the signs of the indefinite object in Bis., and Iban. (cf. below, p. 345); e. g., kuma ka-n danum 'take some water.' The choice of a and nga in those languages which possess both seems to be regulated by euphonic considerations: in Ilokan a must be used when the preceding word ends and the following begins with a consonant, e. g., toy a balay 'this house;' nga must be used when the preceding word ends and the following begins with a vowel a, e. g., dayta nga aso 'that dog,' otherwise the two are used indiscriminately. Ilokan -n is used before the adverbs sa and to, e. g., adda-n-sa 'is there perhaps,' adda-n-to 'will there be,' and has also various other uses. In Pangasinan ya is used principally to join clauses, e. g., alam so libro ya wala-d' silid 'bring the book which is in the room;' -y is used as the equivalent of -n, and also as a substitute for the nominative and genitive of the articles, e. g., talora-y silla=talora-n silla 'three chairs,' onla dia-y Antonio= onla dia si Antonio 'come here Antonio.' Otherwise the four forms are practically equivalent except that -n and -y are only

² Cf. Williams, Grammatische Skizze der Ilokano-Sprache (dissertation), München, 1904, p. 64 f.

¹ Cf. my paper, Differences between Tagalog and Bisayan, JAOS. xxv, 1904, p. 167 f.

s Contracted from wala ed. In Pangasinan wala means 'to be,' in Tagalog and Bisayan it means 'not to be,' one being affirmative, the other negative. A similar difference in meaning is presented in Semitic by Hebrew אָבֶר 'be willing,' Arabic أبي 'aba, Ethiopic אוני 'abaja' 'be unwilling, refuse.'

used after vowels. In the meager specimens of Bontoc Igorot which are accessible -n is used after a vowel, ay after either vowel or consonant, e. g., chuwa-n lasot 'two hundred,' chuwa ay lifo 'two thousand,' siam ay poo 'ninety' (nine tens). In Magindanao a is the usual ligature, i being used mainly after interrogative words instead of the article su, e. g., tingin i midtalu salka 'who spoke to you?' In Sulu the ligature i occurs sporadically, e. g., pelu i bulan 'how many months?' In Bagobo the ligature is used as relative.

All these ligatures seem to be derived from the four particles na, $n\tilde{y}a$, a, and i. The forms -n and -ny are shortened respectively from na and $n\tilde{y}a$; i after a vowel forms the second element of a diphthong and is then often written -y; ay and ya are probably combinations of the two particles a and i; na and $n\tilde{y}a$ are perhaps simply two forms of the same particle.

The Articles.

The Philippine languages possess not only a definite and indefinite article, which are in the main equivalent to the corresponding English articles, but also a personal and an inclusive article (cf. above, p. 325).

Definite Article.

The forms of the definite article in the various languages are, viz.:

	nom.	gen.	obl.
Tag.	ang	nang	sa
Bis. (Ceb.)	ang	sa	sa
Bis. (Hil.)	ang (ing)	sang	sa
Bis. (SamI	Ley.) an (in)	san, nan, k	anan sa
Bis. (Har.)	ya, nan	sa, kan	, et
Bik.	an, si	nin, ninsi,	sa, kan
Pamp.	sg. ing	ning ·	king
-	pl. ding	(ding)1	karing
Pang.	sg. so, say	na	ed

¹ Doubtless the correct form (cf. inc. art.), though not given by the grammar.

Pang. pl. {	saray, iray, ray; so saray	day	ed saray
	iti, ti	na saray ti	iti
pl.	dagiti .	dagiti	kadagiti
Igor. (Nab.)	e¹	ne	sun, chi
Iban.	i	na	ta ·
Bat.	n, sn	nu	du, (u, su)3
Mag.	su	j na, nu, sa kana, kanu	sa, kana, kanu
Sulu	in	sin, kan	ha, pa
Bag.	yan, i	ka, ta	ka, ta

Nominative.

Forms that are apparently root particles are ya, si, i, u, ti. Ya is probably identical with the ligature ya; si is the personal article used as definite (cf. below, p. 346); i is probably identical with the ligature i; ti is probably identical with the demonstrative root particle ti (cf. below, p. 353).

Pangasinan, Batan, and Magindanao su, so, may be a root particle, or u with an inflectional s borrowed from si, the nominative of the personal article. Nabaloi e may be a variant form of i, or a contraction of *ay identical with the ligature ay.

The forms ang, an, ing, in, yan seem to consist of the root particles i and ya just described, and a which is probably identical with the ligature a, followed by the ligature -ng, -n, which is regularly used in these languages between two words that stand to one another in the relation of modified and modifier, when the first of the group ends in a vowel. Originally the root particle was the article, and -ng, -n simply a connective, the -ng in Taga-

¹ Also given as objective along with sun and chi.

² The oblique case forms are given as du, lu, su, but this is almost certainly a mistake for du, l. u, su, l. being an abbreviation for 'or,' as in the nominative su l. u. No particle which could be connected with this apparent lu occurs in any of the languages, except, perhaps, in Magindanao (cf. below, p. 372) and there it seems to be a foreign element. As these forms are headed 'dat., ac., abl.' the forms u, su are probably nominatives used as accusatives (cf. below, p. 380, ft. nt. 1).

³ As these forms are given by Juanmarti in the paradigm only in connection with the following plural particle $man\tilde{g}a$, the u may be a modification of a due to the labial m.

⁴ Cf. Brandstetter, Tag. u. Mad., p. 78.

log a-ng tawo 'the man' being no more a part of the article than the -ng in ito-ng tawo 'this man.' The ligature, however, has become an integral part of the article, as is shown by the pronominal use of the article before an oblique case, e. g., Tag. ang sa tawo 'that of the man,' where the ligature would ordinarily not be employed.

Pangasinan say seems to be a combination of a root particle sa and the ligature i. Whether this sa is ultimately identical with the sa of the oblique case (cf. below) is uncertain.

Harayan nan is probably borrowed from the genitive, being doubtless identical with the Samaro-Leytean genitive nan (cf.

below).

Ilokan iti seems to be a combination of the simpler form ti with an articular prefix i doubtless identical with Ibanag nominative i, and ultimately with the ligature i. This i is to be distinguished from the prepositional i which occurs in the identical oblique case iti (cf. below).

The plural forms in Pangasinan and Ilokan contain a plural element da, ra, which is identical with the root particles da, ra, la of the third person plural (cf. below, p. 381 f.). In Pangasinan ra is always followed by the ligature i, and it also may take the prefixes i, sa, and so sa, i being identical with the i of Ilokan nominative iti, sa and so with the sa and so of the Pangasinan singular. In Ilokan the plural is made by prefixing dag, consisting of da+an additional pluralizing element g, i to the singular iti. In Pampangan ding, which like the singular forms ang, ing, contains the ligature -ng, di may be a modification of da due to the influence of the i of the singular, or it may be an independent root particle (cf. below, p. 348).

Genitive.

The genitive forms that are apparently root particles are sa, et, na, ti, ka. To is the same as the ti in the nominative; sa, et and ka belong rather to the oblique (cf. below); na is probably identical with the ligature na.

Batan nu and perhaps Magindanao nu (cf., however, p. 341, ft. nt.) may be a root particle, or it may be u with an inflec-

¹ Cf. my article, The Bisayan Dialects, cited above, p. 127.

tional n borrowed from na. Nabaloi ne is either a variant form of ni, or na + the ligature i. Bagobo ta has apparently no representative in any of the other languages, Ibanag ta (obl.) representing an original sa.

The forms nang, nan, sang, san, consist of the root particles na and sa followed by the ligature -ng, -n. The forms ning, nin consist of a similar combination of the ligature with a particle ni, which may itself be a root particle, or the root particle i with an inflectional n borrowed from na.

In Bikol ninsi the genitive is prefixed to the nominative. Sulu sin is probably the nominative in with an inflectional s borrowed from the genitive and oblique sa (cf. below, p. 354). The forms kan, kanan, kana, kanu, seem to be borrowed from the oblique (cf. below).

The plural forms in Pampangan and Ilokan are identical with the nominative. In Pangasinan the form day (=plural particle da + ligature i) is probably more original than ray of the nominative, where the r is doubtless due to the analogy of the other nominative forms (cf. below, p. 382): in the form na saray; na, the genitive singular, is prefixed as genitive case sign to the nominative.

Oblique.

The forms that are apparently root particles are sa (including Iban. ta, cf. above, p. 333), et, ed, *di (Nab. chi, cf. above, p. 333), ha, pa, ka. Et and ed are probably identical, and are perhaps to be connected with di; di is doubtless identical with the Malay preposition di 'in;' Sulu ha is perhaps to be connected with the Sulu active verbal suffixes a, ha just as the i of Ilokan i-ti is probably identical with the active verbal suffix i of Malay (cf. below); Sulu pa, which indicates motion towards, is perhaps identical with the verbal prefix pa, which is used to form verbs of motion, e. g., Tag. pa-rito 'come here' from dito 'here,' pa-sa-Maynila 'go to Manila' from sa-Maynila 'in Manila;' ka is doubtless identical with the Malay preposition ka 'to, towards.' For Bagobo ta cf. under genitive.

The form kan consists of the root particle ka+ligature n; Pampangan king consists of the ligature ng and a root particle ki which is probably modified from ka under the influence of the *i* vocalism of the other forms; Batan *du* is probably *u* with an inflectional *d* borrowed from the particle *di*; Nabaloi sun consists perhaps of the root particle *u* with an inflectional *s* as in Sulu genitive sin, and ligature n; Ilokan iti consists of the root particle ti, and a prepositional i' identical with the *i* of the Tagalog adverbs and prepositions sa *i*-babao 'over,' sa *i*-taas 'above,' sa *i*-baba' below,' sa *i*-lalim 'underneath,' which consist of a root preceded by two prepositional elements *i* and sa. This *i* may be identical with the prefix *i* of the passive, just as in Malay di is both preposition and passive prefix.' The same preposition *i* seems also to occur as active suffix in Malay, where it is equivalent to the active suffix kan, connected with the preposition ka.'

In Samaro-Leytean kanan, Magindanao kana, kanu, ka is prefixed as oblique case sign to the genitive; in the plural of Pampangan and Ilokan to the nominative-genitive. In the Pagnasinan plural, ed is prefixed as oblique case sign to the nominative.

For the Batan forms u and su, which are identical with the nominative, cf. above, p. 341, ft. nt. 2.

Indefinite Article. .

The idea of the indefinite article, whenever it is not indicated sufficiently by the nature of the construction, is expressed by the numeral one, which unlike the numerals from 'two' upward seems to be derived from pronominal particles. This numeral, however, is not inflected, but expresses its case by means of an inflected word placed before it. Its forms in the various languages are, viz.:

Tag.	isa	Ilok.	meysa .
Bis. (Ceb.)	usa	Igor. (Nab.)	saxei
Bis. (Hil.)	isa, usa	Igor. (Bon.)	isa
Bis. (SamLey.)	usa	Iban.	itte, tadday
Bik.	saro	Mag.	isa
Pamp.	isa, metong	Sulu	isa
Pang.	isa, sakey	Bag.	sabbad

¹ Cf. Brandstetter, Tag. u. Mad., p. 78.

² Cf. Favre, Grammaire de la langue malaise, Vienne, 1876, pp. 132, 158. Seidel, op. cit., pp. 52, 66.

³ Cf. Marsden, op. cit., p. 56.

All of these forms except Pampangan metong, which is not clear, are derived from a root particle sa, which is used for 'one' in Javanese and Malay. The initial i of isa is probably the same articular i which has already been seen in Ilokan nominative iti, and which has an extensive use in the demonstrative and personal pronouns (cf. below).

Ibanag itte probably consists of *itta + the ligature i, just as due 'two' is probably equivalent to dua + i; *itta is doubtless derived from *ita (=isa, cf. above, p. 333), with the doubling which is so characteristic of Ibanag (cf. above, p. 336). In Ilokan instead of the simple i, mey, contracted from mai, a combination of i and the adjectival prefix ma, is used, just as it is employed instead of the simple i of many of the other languages, in the formation of the ordinals, e. g., Ilok. maikapat 'fourth' (Tag. ikapat).

The u of Bisayan usa is probably identical with Batan u (cf.

also below, pp. 354, 361).

Ibanag tadday (<*sadday, cf. above, p. 333) is perhaps to be analyzed as root particle sa + da, root particle of third person plural, + ligature i, the doubling being phonetic. The second elements of Bikol sa-ro, Pangasinan sa-key, Nabaloi sa-xei, Bagobo sa-bbad are, perhaps, similar in nature to the numeral coefficients of Malay.

Under the head of indefinite articles are best considered those particles which indicate the indefinite object of an action. In Cebuan these are ug, more rarely ak; in Hiliguayna and Samaro-Leytean sing and sin respectively: e. g., Cebuan kumuha ka ug tubig 'take some water.' The two last are probably identical in formation with sin, the genitive of the definite article in Sulu. In Ibanag a particle tu, perhaps identical with Batan and Magindanao su, Pangasinan so, is employed, e. g., apam mu tu kanak ku 'bring me something to eat.'

Personal Article.

The forms of the personal article in the various languages are, viz.:

¹ Cf. Favre, op. cit., p. 71f.; Maxwell, Manual of the Malay Lang., London, 1902. p. 70f.

1	nom.	gen.	obl.
Tag.	si	ni	kay
Bis.	si {	ni kanan (SamLey.)	kay (Hil., Har.) kan (Ceb., Sam Ley., Hil.)
Bik.	si	ni	ki
Pamp.	i	nan	kan
Pang.	si	nen	ed
Ilok.	si, ni	ni ·	ken
Igor. (Nab.)	si¹	nan, ne	sun, sikan
Iban.	si	ni	ta, takkua, tak- kuani
Bat.	si	ni	di .
Mag.	si	ni, kani	kani
Sulu	hi		
Bag.	si	ni	kan

The usual nominative is the root particle si. In Pampangan i, identical with the root particle i of the definite article, is employed, and with this, Sulu hi is perhaps identical, as a secondary h is sometimes developed before an initial vowel (cf. above, p. 336). Ilokan ni is derived from the genitive (cf. below, p. 387).

The usual genitive is the particle ni (cf. above, p. 343). The forms nan, kanan, ne are to be explained like nan, kanan, ne of the definite article. Pangasinan nen seems to be the articular root particle na+the ligatures i and n, *nain being contracted to nen (cf. above, p. 331). Magindanao kani belongs rather to the oblique.

In the oblique case most of the forms are based on the articular root particle ka: kan consists of ka + the ligature n; kay, of ka + the ligature y; Hokan ken is probably to be analyzed, like Pangasinan nen, as ka+i+n; Magindanao kani consists of ka + the genitive ni: Nabaloi sikan is kan with what is apparently the nominative si prefixed. Bikol ki seems to be a modification of ka due to the influence of the i in the other case forms si and ni. Pangasinan does not distinguish between the

¹ Also given as objective along with sun and sikan.

definite and personal articles in the oblique case, ed serving for both, and in Ibanag the oblique case ta of the definite article is used either alone or in the compound forms takkua, takkuani as the oblique of the personal article. The kua in the compounds just mentioned is a noun meaning 'thing, possession,' which is used in Ilokan and Ibanag in conjunction with the postpositive genitives of the personal pronouns to form possessive pronouns, e. g., kua-k 'mine,' kua-m 'thine,' etc.'; ni is the genitive of the personal article. Batan di is doubtless identical with Nabaloi chi, Malay di (cf. above, p. 343).

Inclusive Article.

The forms of the inclusive article, in so far as they are given by the various grammars, are as follows, viz.:

. 1	nom.	gen	obl.
Tag.	sina	nina	kana
Bis. (Ceb.)	sa	na	ka
Bis. (Hil.)	sanday	nanday	kanday
	sila nay	ila nay	sa ila nay
	sila ni	ila ni	sa ila ni
	sila si	nila ni	kanila ni
	sila sa²		
Bis. (SamLey.)	sira	nira	kanda
Bik.	sa, sainda sa, sinda sa	na, ninda na	na, sainda na
Pamp.	di	di	kari
Pang.	sara di sikara di	da di na sara di	ed sara di
Ilok.	da³	da*	
Iban.	da	da	takkuara

The Tagalog forms are compounded of a particle na, perhaps identical with the ligature na, and the case forms of the personal article, ka being used instead of ka-y.

¹ Cf. Naves, op. cit., p. 85; De Cuevas, op. cit., p. 77.

² Cf. Mentrida and Aparicio, op. cit., p. 10.

⁸ Cf. Naves, op. cit., pp, 80, 121.

Cebuan and Bikol sa, which occurs also in Hiliguayna sila sa, seems to be a modification of si, a perhaps being borrowed from the plural particle da, where it was felt as a plural ending. The other case forms na and ka were then made on the basis of sa, the nominative case sign s being changed respectively to n and k.

In many instances the inclusive article is based on the pronoun of the third person plural (cf. below, p. 379 ff.). In Hiliguayna, sanday is the pronoun sanda 'they' + the ligature i; nanday and kanday are made on this basis by simply changing the case sign: sila nay and its declined forms is a combination of the pronoun sila 'they' with a particle nay, probably na, identical with na in Tagalog si-na, + the ligature i: for sila sa cf. below. The other Hiliguayna forms consist of sila followed by the nominative or genitive of the personal article.

Samaro-Leytean sira, nira are identical with the corresponding forms of the pronoun of the third person plural; the oblique kanda is to be connected with the stem of Hiliguayna sanday. The Bikol forms like sinda sa, ninda na, etc., and Hiliguayna sila sa, consist of the forms of the pronoun of the third person plural followed by the nominative or genitive of the inclusive article sa; sainda sa, if it is not a typographical error, owes its initial syllable sa to the influence of the inclusive article sa. Ilokan and Ibanag da is identical with the root particle da of the pronoun of the third person plural. The sign of the oblique case in Ibanag, viz., takkua- is to be explained as in the case of the personal article. Pampangan di may be a modification of da due to the influence of the prevailing i vocalism of the articular forms, but the occurrence of di as the final element of the inclusive article in Pangasinan, where there is no such influence, seems to indicate that di is an independent particle: kari is di with prefixed case sign ka. In Pangasinan the inclusive article is made by prefixing to di, forms derived from the pronoun of the third person plural or from the plural of the definite article: sikara is identical with one of the pronouns of the third person plural; the other elements prefixed to di are the corresponding case forms of the plural of the definite article without the ligature -y.

Demonstrative Pronouns.

With regard to their meaning, the demonstrative pronouns may be divided into two general classes, A) the nearer demonstratives, which may be translated by 'this;' B) the more remote demonstratives, which may be translated by 'that.' Within these two general groups, especially in the second, there are in most of the languages further subdivisions of meaning. For example, in Tagalog, yari indicates something that is nearer the speaker than the person addressed, ito, something that is near both, iyan, something that is nearer the person addressed than the speaker, and yaon, something that is distant from both.

These more minute distinctions, however, are of practically no importance from a morphological point of view, and even in the case of the two main semantic groups, we often find what is nearer demonstrative in one, used as remoter demonstrative in another, e. g., Tagalog ito 'this,' Samaro-Leytean ito 'that.'

In general the demonstratives are made up of three elements, viz., (a) demonstrative root particles; (b) prefixed particles, usually of articular origin, which denote case and sometimes number, and which will be known as case indicating particles; (c) connective particles or ligatures, which are of two kinds, those that connect case indicating prefix with the root particle, and those that are suffixal in character, representing what was originally ligature between the demonstrative and following noun. Sometimes a demonstrative seems to contain two root demonstrative particles, viz., in Magindanao en-tu and in the Ibanag forms ending in -ye. In Bagobo an adverbial particle go appears as final element in some of the demonstratives.

The forms of the demonstrative pronouns in the various languages are, viz.:

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					Comes To	
Tag.	A	N. yari, yiri, yeri	ito	ivan	Agon Agon	
	9	nimi			. moof tronf	
	, ,	7		niyan	nion, noon, niyaon, niyoon	n, niyoon
		J. dini	dito	diyan	doon	
Bis. (Ceb.)	4	N. kini, saini, sini	kari, diri, dari, ari	kana	kadto(t), adto	kitot, itota
	G.	G. O. niini	niari niana	niana	niadto(t)	niitot
	0	O. kanini			6)	
Bis. (Hil.)	4	N. ini		vana, ina	vadto	iton
	G. C). sini, sa sini		Sana. Sina. Sa sina sadto sa sadto	sadto sa sadto	siton
Bis. (SamLe	y.) 1	Bis. (SamLey.) N. ini		1	adto, vadto	ito
	G.C	O. sini, sa sini			sadto, sa sadto	sito es cito
Bis. (Har.)	A	N. dia		dan	darto	Constant Sections
	G.C	G. O. karia, kadia		karan, kadan	karaoto kaoto	
Bik.	A	N. ini		ivan	idto	
	G. C	G. O. kaini		kaivan	kaidto	
Pamp.	8g. 1	sg. N. ini	iti	iyan	ita	
	9	G. nini	niti	niyan	nita	
	0	O. kanini, keni	iti, keti	kean ³	kanita, keta	
.ld	N. 6	pl. N. G. deni	deti	dean*	deta	
	0	O. kareni	kareti	karean*	kareta	
8	.g. N	sg. N. saya, aya, ia;		satan, itan, atan,		saman, aman, iman.
		so saya		tan; so satan		man; so saman
Pang.	_	G. tonia; na saya		tontan; na satan		tonman, na saman
)	O. 'ed saya		ed satan		ed saman
7	pl. 1	pl. N. saraya, raya,		saratan, iratan,		saraman, iraman.
		iraya; so saraya		ratan; so saratan	n	raman; so sara-
						man

	G. dania; na saraya	dantan; na saratan	ratan	danman; na sara-
	O. 'ed saraya	ed saratan		man ed saraman
nok.	sg. N. G. daytoy, toy	dayta, ta	daydi, di	dediay, diay
	O. 1109, 1tl daytoy pl. N. G. dagitoy	ita, iti dayta dagita	ldi, iti daydi dagidi	idiay, iti dediay dagidiay
Igor.	O. kadagitoy Igor. (Nab.) saidiai, sadiai, iai	kadagita kada satan, sutan, suta, itan	kadagidi suta, itan	kadagidiay saman, iman
Iban.	sg. N. yau, au G. nau gl. nau gl. yoye	yara yari	yajje yatun	yad
	O. tau declined		(ytunye	yojje
	pl. N. {danau in anne			yod
	G. danau way			yora
	O. Stakkaranau			yuri
	(takkuaranau			(yura
Bat.	nooya	uri	au	
Mag.	inia	anan	entu	
Sulu		ien	ietu.	isun
Bag.	ini	toy	toigo	yango, to

The adverb 'to day' makes case forms like the demonstratives, viz., nom. karon, gen.-obl. niaron.

given in the Cebuan paradigms in Mentrida and Aparicio's Hiliguayna Grammar, p. 250f.

In these forms can represents a contraction of *aiyan, intervocalic y becoming the hiatus or glottal catch as perhaps in * The form diad is given in the paradigms as the equivalent of ed in the ablative case, but this is simply the adverb sia for siya; cf. below, p. 381.

dia 'here'+ed.

'Given by Williams, op. cit. p. 59.

The root particles of the demonstrative are di, ni, to, ya, uu, na, ti, ta, ma, en, and possibly a (cf. below, under ya and na). The particles ya, na, a are probably identical, respectively, with

the ligatures, ya, na, a.

Di, which when intervocalic appears in many languages as ri, is found in Tag. ya-ri, yi-ri, ye-ri, ni-ri, all the forms of Ceb. ka-ri, Iban. ya-ri, yu-ri, Bat. u-ri, Iba. day-di, de-di-ay, and in Nab. sai-di-ai, sa-di-ai. The root particle is found uncombined only in Ilokan. Ilokan dediay is daydi + the double ligature ay, day being contracted to de. In Ibanag the forms yad and yud seem to to shortened from yari and yuri respectively; and these shortened forms were then augmented by the addition of a, probably the ligature a, viz., yara, yura, and ye, probably contracted from the ya which occurs as the pronoun of the third person + the ligature -y, viz., yaje (<*yad-ye), yuje (<*yud-ye).

Ni occurs in Tagalog oblique di-ni and all the forms of Cebuan k-i-ni, Hiliguayna, Samaro-Leytean, Bikol, Pampan-

gan, Sulu, and Bagobo i-ni, and Magindanao i-ni-a.

To occurs in all the forms of Tagalog i-to, Cebuan k-i-to-t, Hiliguayna i-to-n, Samaro-Leytean i-to, Ilokan day-to-y, Ibanag ya-tu-n, ya-tu-n-ye, in Bagobo to, to-y, to-i-go, probably in Magindanao en-tu, Sulu ie-tu, and in all the forms derived from the stems, Cebuan, Hiliguayna, and Samaro-Leytean adto, Harayan ag-to, and Bikol id-to. The second t of the Cebuan forms kitot, etc.; kadtot, etc., is probably due to incomplete reduplication. The final ye of the Ibanag forms is to be explained as the ye in yajje (<*yad-ye). Bagobo-go is an emphatic particle which is also used in sentences with non-verbal predicate, e. g., si kona mapia-go manobo 'you are a good man.' The en- of Magindanao entu seems to be the same as the en in Sulu i-en.

Ya occurs in all the forms of Tagalog, Bikol, and Pampangan, i-ya-n; of Pangasinan sa-ya; in the Ibanag final syllable ye for *ya-i in yoye, yajje, yujje, yojje, yatunye; and perhaps in Harayan dia (all forms), Nabaloi iai, Batan nooya, and Bagobo yango. Harayan dia probably stands for *di-ya (cf.

¹ Ny, the definite article in Madagascan, is probably identical with this root particle, cf. Parker, op. cit., p. 45.

sia=siya, p. 381, below). Nabaloi iai may be simply a shortened form of saidiai, sadiai, or it may be analyzed as ia + ligature i, or as a root particle a preceded by articular i, and followed by the ligature i. Bagobo yango contains the particle go and an element yan which is probably ya + the ligature n.

Au occurs in Tagalog y-ao-n, ni-y-ao-n, and in all the forms of Ibanag y-au, yoye (<*y-au-ye), Batan au, and Sulu i-au-n. In the Tagalog forms yoon, niyoon, the first element of the a of ao seems to have been assimilated to o; nion is contracted from niyoon; noon and doon seemed to be formed on the basis of yoon, the case signs n and d being substituted for y. The Ibanag forms yod, yojje (<*yod-ye), yora present a blend of yau and the forms with d, having the vocalism of yau, and the d of the latter forms:

* Na is found in all the forms of Cebuan ka-na, Hiliguayna ya-na, Magindanao a-na-n, and perhaps of Harayan dan if it is a shortened form of *da-na. In the Harayan forms, however, the root particle may be a, identical with the root particle of Tagalog ang.

Ti, identical with the ti of the Ilokan definite article, occurs in all the forms of Pampangan i-ti.

Tu occurs in all the forms of Pampangan i-ta, Pangasinan sa-tu-n, Ilokan day-ta, and in Nabaloi sa-ta-n, su-ta-n and i-ta-n.

Ma occurs in all the forms of Pangasinan and Nabaloi sama-n, etc.

En occurs in Sulu i-en and Magindanao en-tu, the tu of the latter form being the demonstrative root particle to.

The case indicating prefixes of the demonstratives are, in Tagalog i, ni, n, di, d; in Cebuan k, sa, s, di, d, i, kan, ni; in Hiliguayna and Samaro-Leytean i, s, sa; in Harayan d, di(?), ka, k; in Pampangan i, ni, ka, da; in Pangasinan sa, a, i, to, da, so, na, ed; in Ilokan i, da, dag; in Nabaloi sa, su, i; in Ibanag i, n, t, da, an (?), takka, takkua; in Batan u; in Magindanao a, i, in Sulu and Bagobo i.

The prefix i (y before a vowel) which is found in most of the languages as the sign of the nominative case is apparently identical with the articular root particle i. The i of the oblique

^{&#}x27;This i is found also in the Malay demonstratives i-ni 'this,' i-tu 'that;' and in all the demonstratives in Madagascan, e.g., i-ty 'this, cf. Parker, op. cit., p. 41.

VOL. XXVII. 2

singular in Ilokan, however, is probably a prepositional particle (cf. above, p. 344). Batan u is identical with the u of the definite article; ni, the most common sign of the genitive, is identical with the ni of the personal article: sa, ka, kan, di and takkua are identical with articular oblique forms sa, ka, kun, di and takkua; da is the root particle of the third person plural that has already been met with in the articles; in Ilokan the da seems to have lost its plural force, being used as a simple initial demonstrative element in both singular and plural, the plural being indicated by da with an additional plural sign g, viz., dag; Pangasinan so, na, ed are case forms of the definite article; Pangasinan and Nabaloi sa is identical with the sa of the article say; Pangasinan and Magindanao a is probably the same a as in Tagalog any; Pangasinan to is the genitive of the pronoun of the third person singular; Nabaloi su is to be connected with the articles, Pangasinan so, Magindanao su; Pampangan ke and de are contracted respectively from ka-i and da-i, with articular i; Ibanag takka is a double oblique sign, standing for *ta-ka < *sa-ka (cf. above, pp. 333, 336); for an of the Ibanag nominative plural, cf. below, p. 356 f.

When the case sign consists of a single consonant it is usually to be explained as derived from forms with a fuller case sign under the influence of proportional analogy. For example, the s of the genitive-oblique in Hiliguayna and Samaro-Leytean is probably derived from sa, a series like Samaro-Leytean adto, sadto (<sa-adto) giving rise to forms like sini, sito on the basis of ini, ito. Similarly Tagalog n and d in the forms noon, doon are probably derived from the fuller forms ni and di; Cebuan and Harayan k, sa, s, and d of the nominative are probably based on the articular oblique forms ka, sa and di (for the use of these oblique forms in the nominative, cf. below, p. 388); Harayan k in kagto is certainly derived from the oblique form ka; Ibanag n and t of the genitive and oblique respectively seem to be derived from the articular forms na and ta.

Sometimes the case signs are prefixed to a case form, sometimes directly to the demonstrative root particle, sometimes to a demonstrative stem consisting of a root particle combined with a prefix, usually articular in character. These prefixes are a, i and u identical with articular a, i and u (cf. below, p. 361), and ad, id, ag of uncertain origin. It is not impossible that

ad, id and ag contain the articular particles a and i followed by a connective g, which is preserved in Harayan, and which is perhaps related to ug, the sign of the indefinite object in Cebuan; Cebuan and Bikol d representing a partial assimilation of this g to the following dental t. Bikol id is probably modified from ad under the influence of the initial i of the other demonstratives ini, iyan.

In Cebuan the case signs are all prefixed to demonstrative stems, viz., a-ri, i-ni, i-tot, ad-to, a-na, except in the nominatives itot, diri, where the case signs i, di are prefixed to the root particle. The forms ari, adto are without case signs.

In Hiliguayna the nominative case sign is prefixed to the root particle in i-ni, i-na and i-ton, but to a demonstrative stem in y-ana, y-adto; the genitive-oblique sign s is prefixed to the first three nominatives; in the others, it replaces the nominative case sign; another series of genitive oblique forms are made by prefixing sa to these forms with s.

In Samaro-Leytean the nominative case sign is prefixed to the root particle in *i-ni*, *i-to*, but to a demonstrative stem in *y-adto*; the form *adto*, as in Cebuan, is without case sign; the genitive-oblique case sign s is prefixed to the nominatives *ini*, *ito*, *adto*, the genitive-oblique sign sa, as in Hiliguayna, to the forms with s.

In Harayan the nominative is made by prefixing d to the stems an (cf. above, p. 353) and ag-to, and di to the root particle in dia (cf. above, p. 352); the genitive-oblique is made by prefixing the case sign to the nominative, except in kagto, where the nominative case sign is simply changed to k.

In Bikol the nominative case sign is prefixed to the root particle in *i-ni* and *i-yan*; the *i* in *idto* is probably not the prefix *i*, but is due to analogical influences (cf. above); the genitive-oblique is made by prefixing the case sign ka to what is apparently the nominative.

¹ Cf. Nabaloi era 'they' for *ira, p. 383.

In Pampangan the articular particles of the nominative and genitive singular are prefixed directly to the stem, e. g., i-ni, ni-ni; that of the oblique singular, to either the genitive or nominative, e. g., ka-nini, keni (<*ka-ini): to form the nominative-genitive plural the plural particle da is prefixed to the nominative singular, e. g., deni (<*da-ini), and the oblique plural is made from this form by prefixing ka, e. g., ka-reni.

In Pangasinan the nominative singular may begin with the stem as in Samaro-Leytean adto, or may take the articular prefixes sa, a, and i, e. g., tan, sa-tan, a-tan, i-tan; the nominative plural is formed by prefixing to the stem the particle da or its combinations with the articular prefixes sa and i, viz., sara, ira, e. g., ra-tan, sa-ra-tan, i-ra-tan: the genitive, singular and plural, is formed by prefixing to the stem the genitive singular and plural, respectively of the pronoun of the third person, the two elements being joined by the ligature n, e. g., to-n-tan, da-n-tan: the oblique, singular and plural, is always, and the other cases may be; indicated by the nominative with initial sa preceded by the forms of the definite article, e. g., ed satan, ed saratan; so satan, na satan, so saratan, na saratan.

In Ilokan the nominative-genitive singular may begin with the root particle, or may take the prefix day, a combination of the plural particle da and the articular prefix i, e. g., toy, da-y-toy; the nominative-genitive plural is formed from the nominative singular by substituting for da a particle day consisting of plural particle da+ a pluralizing g; the da of the singular is borrowed from the plural, where it has apparently lost its plural significance, owing to the presence of an additional plural sign g; the oblique singular is made by prefixing a prepositional particle i (cf. above, p. 344) to the short form of the nominative, e. g., i-toy, or by placing the oblique of the article before the long form of the nominative, as in Pangasinan, e. g., iti daytoy; the oblique plural is formed by prefixing ka to the nominative-genitive plural, e. g., ka-dayitoy.

In Ibanag the case signs of the singular are prefixed directly to the root particle as in y-au, or to a demonstrative stem as in y-a-ri, y-u-ri; in the plural the case signs are prefixed to the genitive singular, the sign of the nominative being the plural particle da, or a particle an of uncertain identity, that of the genitive, the particle da, that of the oblique one of the com-

pounds takkara, takkuara, equivalent to the particle da preceded by the oblique case sign takka, takkua. In the nominative singular there are also a series of forms without the case sign y, e. g., au: it is not impossible that the plural forms like annau may have been made from plural forms like danau by dropping the initial d after the analogy of pairs like yau, au in the singular; in this case the doubling of the n would be phonetic.

The declension of the demonstratives in the remaining languages is not given in the grammars. The cases are probably indicated by the forms of the definite article. The nominative case signs a, i and u occur prefixed to the root particle in Nabaloi i-tan, i-man; Magindanao, a-nan, i-nia; Sulu and Bagobo i-ni, Sulu i-en, i-aun; Batan u-ri: Sulu i-etu is perhaps a modification of *i-tu with articular i, due to the influence of the initial ie of the synonymous ien: for Nabaloi iai, Bagobo yango, cf. above, p. 352 f. The nominative case signs sa and su are found in the remaining Nabaloi forms prefixed to the root particle except in saidiai, which probably contains sa prefixed to a stem beginning with articular i.

The connective particles which are used in the formation of the demonstratives are n, i (y), a and ai (ay).

Noccurs as final in all the forms of Tagalog, Bikol, and Pampangan iya-n, Tagalog yao-n, Hiliguayna ito-n, Pangasinan sata-n and sama-n, Ibanag yatu-n, in Nabaloi sata-n, suta-n, ita-n, sama-n, ima-n, Magindanao ana-n, and Sulu iau-n: the same n occurs followed by another element in all the forms of Ibanag yatu-n-ye, and in Bagobo ya-n-go. This n is also used in Pangasinan to connect the genitive case signs to and da with the root particle (cf. above, p. 356). The n of all the forms of Harayan dan may also belong here (cf. above, p. 353).

I, or as it is usually written y, occurs as final element in all the forms of Ilokan dayto-y, in all the Ibanag forms with final element ye (<*ya-i, cf. above, p. 331), and in Nabaloi ia-i, Bagobo to-i-y; it occurs followed by another element in Bagobo to-i-yo, and in the double ligature ai.

A seems to occur as final element in Magindanao ini-a, and in the double ligature ai.

Ai, a combination of the two ligatures a and i, occurs as final element in all the forms of Ilokan dedi-ay, and in Nabaloi saidi-ai, sadi-ai, and perhaps iai (cf. above, p. 353).

Interrogative Pronouns.

The interrogative pronouns are of three kinds:

- a) The personal interrogative 'who?' referring to persons;
- b) the neuter interrogative 'what?' referring to things;
- c) the individualizing interrogative 'which?' referring to either persons or things.

In general the interrogatives consist of root particles, some of which seem to be of adverbial origin, combined with prefixes and suffixes similar to those of the demonstratives.

Case, in those interrogatives which are inflected, is indicated by the prefixes. The plural is indicated sometimes by the articular prefix, sometimes by reduplication, or by both together; sometimes by the suffix.

Some of the interrogatives cannot be broken up into monosyllablic particles, but for the sake of completeness they are all included in the discussion.

The forms of the interrogatives in the various languages are, viz.:

	Pı	ERS. INTER.		NEUT. INTER.
Tag.	nom. sg. sino pl. sinosino	gen. nino, kanino (sa ninonino, (sa) kanikanino	obl.) kanino) kanikanin	ano no anoano
Bis. (Ceb.) Bis. (Hil.)	kinsa, kinsalan sin-o	(kansa, kansalan sin-o, ni sin-o kay sin-o, kalin-o kanin-o	kay sin-o	unsa, unsalan ano
Bis. (SamL	ey.) sin-o	kanay, nin-o	kanay, sa kana san kan sin kan	ay,
Bik.	sg. siisay pl. saisay	niisay naisay, kaisay	kiisay kaisay	ano
Pamp.	sg. nino pl. dinino, deno	nino, kanino dinino, deno	keno kareno	nanu
Pang.	sg. siopa, opa pl. siopara	opa opara	ed siopa ed siopara	anto

¹ Little used.

Ilok.	asino, asinno,		ania
			(dyano,
Igor. (Nab.)	sepa, sepay		nĝaramto(i) nĝanto
Iban.	sg. sinni	nini ta	akkuanini anni
410.01		1219724	akkuarani
	pl. dani, danirani		akkuarani-
	7	7	rani
Mag.	tingin, antain	,	ngain, antuna
Sulu	sio, hisio		uno
Bag.	sadan		andin
	In	NDIV. INTER.	
	nom.	gen.	obl.
Tag.	sy. alin	3.50	
	pl. alinalin		
Bis.	hain		
Bik.	arin		
Pamp.	sg. insa,¹ insanu¹	ningsa, ningsanu	kingsa, kingsanu kaningsa, kaningsanu
	pl. dingsa, dingsan	u dingsa, dingsanu	
Pang.	dinan	, ,	0 / 0
Ilok.	adinno, adino, adin		
Igor. (Nab.)	chinan, tua, tw	ai	
Iban.	sg. yasi	nasi	tasi
	pl. danasi	danasi	(no oblique)
Sulu	hadien		

As the case forms of the interrogatives are comparatively few, they will be analyzed in connection with the discussion of the root particles.

A root particle no is found in all the forms of the personal interrogative in Tagalog, Hiliguayna, Samaro-Leytean (except kanay and derived forms), Pampangan, and Ilokan; in the individualizing interrogative in Pampangan and Ilokan, and

¹ The initial in in these forms is without doubt the article ing; in this the most common case form of the word, ng has been partially assimulated to the following s, a change which has apparently not taken place in the other case forms.

perhaps in the neuter interrogatives ano, uno. The glottal catch in Bisayan -n-o is probably secondary. In Ibanag, no occurs in the form ni, in the personal, and perhaps in the neuter interrogative, the i of which is due to the influence of final i of the individualizing interrogative yasi.

The nominative singular of the personal interrogatives derived from no is made by prefixing the personal article si to the particle, except in Pampangan, where ni, ordinarily a genitive sign, but also used for the nominative in Ilokan, is employed. The initial a of Ilokan a-sino is perhaps due to the analogy of the neuter interrogative ania; asin is a shortened form of asino. The doubling of the n in Ilokan asinno, Ibanag sinni, is phonetic.

The genitive singular is made with the case signs ni and ka. Ni is prefixed directly to the particle no in Tagalo nino, Samaro-Leytean nin-o, Pampangan nino, Ibanag nini; in Hiliguayna ni sin-o it is prefixed to the nominative. Ka is prefixed to the genitive with ni in Tagalog, Pampangan, and Hiliguayna. Hiliguayna kalin-o seems to be derived from kanin-o by dissimilation, the first n being changed to the related sound l. Hiliguayna also possesses a form made by prefixing kay, the oblique of the personal article, to the nominative, viz., kay sin-o.

The oblique case in Tagalog is identical with the genitive form with case sign ka, or is made by placing the oblique of the definite article before this form; in Hiliguayna it is identical with the genitive forms beginning with k; in Pampangan the oblique keno is probably a modification of ka-no with case sign ka, based on the analogy of the oblique cases with initial ke in the demonstrative and personal pronouns; in Ibanag the oblique case sign takkua (cf. above, p. 347) is prefixed to the genitive.

In Tagalog the cases of the plural are made by reduplicating two syllables of the corresponding singular form. In the Pampangan nominative-genitive plural there are two forms, viz., dinino, made by prefixing di, the root of the inclusive article, to the singular nino, and deno, probably modified from di-no after the analogy of the plurals of demonstratives with initial de. The oblique is made by prefixing ka to deno. In the Ibanag plural, dani consists of ni with prefixed plural particle

da, danirani is a reduplication of this form, and the oblique forms consist of the case sign takkua prefixed to these two forms.

It is not impossible that the neuter interrogative ano is a combination of no with an articular prefix a, but it may also be explained as containing the root particle an. The u of Sulu uno, if it is to be analyzed as u-no, and is not simply a phonetic modification of ano, is probably the same u which is used in Batan as definite article.

No also occurs as the final syllable nu, no of the individualizing interrogative in Pampangan and Ilokan.

This stem no is perhaps identical with the particle no which is the word for 'if,' in Ilokan, Ibanag, and Pangasinan, the ideas of 'doubting' and 'questioning' being very similar.

A root particle sa occurs in all the forms of the personal interrogative in Cebuan, Bikol, and Bagobo, the neuter interrogative in Cebuan, and the individualizing interrogative in Pampangan.

The initial k of the Cebuan personal interrogative forms is probably the same which occurs as the sign of the nominative in the demonstratives. The case in this pronoun seems to be indicated not according to the usual rule by initial inflection, but by the difference of the vowel after the initial, i indicating the nominative, a the genitive-oblique. The particles in, an, un, which precede sa it Cebuan and Pampangan, seem to consist of the articular particles i, α , u + the ligature; this seems to be shown by the fact that the in of the Pampangan forms is declined like the definite article. The final element lan of the Cebuan forms is perhaps to be connected with Tagalog alin, Bikol arin. The nu of insanu is to be connected with the stem no. The case forms of the Pampangan individualizing interrogative all consist of sa or sanu preceded by the proper case form of the definite article, except in the oblique singular, where additional forms are made by prefixing ka to the genitive, following the analogy of the plural.

The forms of the Bikol personal interrogative are based on an element isay, composed of sa with prefixed articular i and following ligature i. To this stem the case forms of the personal and inclusive articles are prefixed in singular and plural respectively, ka being equivalent to Cebuan ka (cf. p. 348).

In Bagobo sa-dan, dan seems to be the genitive plural of the third person, just as the din of an-din 'what?' is the genitive singular (cf. below).

This interrogative root particle sa is perhaps identical with the adverbial particle sa which means 'perhaps' in Itokan, and in Tagalog is equivalent to the modal adverb sana which imparts

to verbs the idea of 'should, would.'

The forms of the personal interrogative in Pangasinan and Nabaloi are clearly connected with Malay apa 'what?' siapa 'who?' Pa may be root particle and the prefixes articular; o of the Pangasinan forms being equal to Batan u; se of the Nabaloi forms, to sa-i, as in saidiai 'this;' a of Malay apa, to the a of Tagalog ang. The si of the Pangasinan and Malay forms is of course the personal article, and it is also not impossible that Nabaloi se may be some modification of si. The final y of Nabaloi sepay is ligature. In Pangasinan the form without si is used as genitive, and the oblique is made by placing the oblique of the definite article ed before the nominative. The plural is made by adding ra (<da) to the forms of the singular.

The root particle of the neuter interrogatives in Pangasinan, Ilokan, and Bagobo is an, and the same an is perhaps the root particle of all the other neuter interrogatives except the Cebuan and Sulu, and the forms nğaramto(i), nğanto, nğain; Sulu uno, however, may be a modification of ano (cf. above, p. 361).

The o, u of Tagalog, Bisayan, and Bikol an-o, Pampangan nan-u, Nabaloi dyan-o, according to this view, is probably due to the analogy of sino or some other interrogative form containing the particle no; the initial n of the Pampangan form is doubtless derived from nino; the initial dy (=*y) in Nabaloi is probably articular. The final i of Ibanag anni, in which the doubling is phonetic, is probably due to the same cause as the final i in sinni.

In Pangasinan an-to and Bagobo an-din (cf. inter. sa-dan, above) the second element is apparently the genitive of the pronoun of the third person, literally 'its what?' just as in Nabaloi the common word for 'what' is n\u00e3aram-to 'its name?' The first part of Magindanao an-tu-na seems to be identical with Pangasinan anto; na is perhaps identical with the genitive of the definite article, the root particle in this case being followed

by a double genitive. Ilokan ania is to be analysed in the same way, as an + an element ia equivalent to the ya of the third personal pronoun.

The stem an seems also to occur in some of the personal and individualizing interrogatives, viz., in Magindanao antain, Pangasinan di-n-an, Nabaloi chi-n-an.

This an is perhaps identical with the locative suffix an of nouns and verbs.

For Nabaloi nğaramto, cf. above; the i of nğaramto-i is ligature; nğanto is contracted from nğaramto, m being assimilated to the following t.

Tagalog alin (<*arin cf. above, p. 333), Bikol arin seems to be based on a stem ar, the ending in being probably the same as the in in Bisayan hain, and perhaps Magindanao tingin, antain, ngain. This suffix in is different from the in of Tagalog ak-in 'mine' (cf. below, p. 368), as this in would appear in Bisayan and Bikol as on, un, in Magindanao as en (cf. above, p. 331). The same stem occurs perhaps also in the Cebuan forms kinsalan, kansalan, unsalan which may be contracted from *kinsa-alan, etc., al (<*ar) being in this case combined with a suffix an identical with that in Tagalog haan 'where?' which bears the same formal relation to hain as *alan does to alin. This suffix an is doubtless ultimately identical with the locative suffix an.

The Ibanag individualizing interrogative is clearly connected with the interrogative adverb dasi, the element asi being the same. This element asi forms its cases like the demonstrative pronouns (cf. above, p. 356 f.).

The idea of 'which?' is closely related to the idea of 'where?' as we see in the two practically synonymous expressions 'which is the road?' and 'where is the road?' Hence it is not surprising that the two ideas are sometimes expressed by the same word, as in Bisayan hain, Nabaloi twa, twai, Sulu hadien, which mean both 'which?' and 'where?'

As 'where?' is practically an oblique case, we might expect the initial syllables to be identical with the oblique case signs in these individualizing pronouns, and so they seem to be. The

¹ Cf. my paper, Analogies between Semitic and Tagalog, JHU. Circs., No. 163, p. 65.

ha of Bisayan ha-in, Sulu ha-dien is to be connected with the oblique of Sulu definite article ha. This ha also occurs in Tagalog in ha-an 'where?' The in of Bisayan hain is difficult (cf. above, p. 363). For the dien of Sulu hadien see below.

The di of Pangasinan di-nan, Nabaloi chi-nan (<*di-nan), *Ilokan a-di-no, etc., and Sulu ha-di-en is probably identical with the oblique articular form di. The nan of the Pangasinan and Nabaloi forms is probably the interrogative stem an with preceding ligature n, used to connect the prefix to the root particle as it is in the genitive of the demonstratives in Pangasinan (cf. above, p. 356). The initial a of the Ilokan forms is to be explained like the a of asino; the doubling in adinno is phonetic; adin is a shortened form of adino, like asin from asino. The final no of these forms is probably identical with the interrogative root particle no.

The en of Sulu hadien is probably connected with the demonstrative particle en (cf. above, p. 353).

Nabaloi tua is perhaps identical with Cebuan tua 'be there;' the i of tua-i is ligature.

The remaining interrogative forms, Samaro-Leytean kunay, Magindanao tingin, antain, ngain, Sulu sio, hisio, are not clear. Kanay contains, of course, the case sign ka or k; its ending suggests a comparison with the Bikol forms; in the oblique it may be preceded by sa and san, respectively oblique and genitive of the definite article, and by sin the sign of the indefinite object. The Magindanao forms all have the ending in (cf. above, p. 363); antain probably contains also the interrogative stem an; ngain may be a combination of nga identical with the ligature, and the suffix in. Sulu sio seems to contain the personal article si, which, however, is not used as such in Sulu; while hisio has prefixed, in addition, the regular Sulu personal article hi.

Personal Pronouns.

The personal pronouns are of three persons, first, second, and third; each person has two numbers, a singular and a plural, and the plural of the first person again distinguishes two series of forms, an exclusive and an inclusive series (cf. above, p. 325); the first person in some languages possesses also a dual which is

closely related morphologically to the inclusive plural; there is no distinction of gender even in the third person.

Case is indicated partly by prefixes similar to those of the demonstratives and interrogatives, partly by using different root particles and stems.

The personal pronouns consist of simple root particles, modified forms of root particles, and forms derived from the root particles by the addition of prefixes and suffixes.

First Person.

The forms of the personal pronouns of the first person in the various languages are, viz.:

		nom.	gen.	obl.
Tag.	pl. ex.	ako kami	akin, ko, (nakin)' amin, namin	sa akin sa amin
	pl. inc.		atin, natin	sa atin
		kita, kata		
Die /			ata, kanita; ta	sa ata, sa kanita
Bis. (akó	áko, nako, ko, ta	kanako, sa ako
	pl. ex.		amo, namo	kanamo, sa amo
	pl. inc.		áto, náto, ta	kanáto, sa áto
		kitá	ató, nató, ta	kanató, sa ató
Bis. (I	Hil.) 8y.	ako	akon, nakon, ko, ta	kanakon, sa akon, dakon, karakon
	pl. ex.	kami	amon, namon	kanamon, sa amon, damon, karamon
	pl. inc.	kita .	aton, naton, ta	kanaton, sa aton, daton, karaton
Bis. (8	SamLey.) sg.	ako, si ako	akon, nakon, ko	sa akon, dakon
	pl. ex.	kami, si kami	amon, namon	sa amon, damon
		kita, si kita	aton, naton, ta	sa aton, daton
Bis. (I		ako, akota	akon, nakon, ta	kanakun
Bik.		ako	ko, niako, sako,	sako, sakoya
	-9.		sakoya	surav, suravju
7	pl. ex.	kami	niamo, samo, samoya, mi	samo, samoya ²
	pl. inc.	kita	niato, sato, satoya, ta	sato, satoya

¹ Used only in the phrase a-nakin 'inquam.'

² Written damoya, evidently a mistake, in San Augustín.

		nom.	gen.	obl.
Pamp.	sg.	ako, ko	ko, koo, ke; kee, da	kanako, kako
1.2	pl. ex.	ikami, ike, kami, ke	mi	kekami, keke
	pl. inc.	ikamo, ita, katamo, kata, tamo, ta	tamo,¹ ta	kekatam (sic), kekata
	du.	ikata, kata, ta	ta, tee, too	kekata
Pang.		siak, ak	ko, -k	ed siak
	40	sikami, kami	mi	ed sikami
	-	sikiti, sikatayo, iti, itayo	ti, tayo	ed sikiti, ed sikatayo
	du.	sikata, ita	ta	ed sikata
Ilok.	sg.	siak, ak	ko, -k	kaniak
	pl. ex.	dakami, kami	mi	kadakami
	pl. inc.	datayo, tayo	tayo	kadatayo
		data, ta	ta	kadata
Igor. (Nab.)	sg.	sikak, ak; nak, na	ko, -k, na, ta	
	pl. ex.	sikame, kame	me	
1	ol. inc.	sikatayo, tayo	tayo	
Iban.	sg.	sakan, sok, ak	ku, -k, ta	niakan, niok
	pl. ex.	sikami, kami	mi	nikami
2	ol. inc.	ittam	tam	nittam
	du.	itta	ta	nitta
Bat.	sg.	yakin, ako	niakin, ko	diakin
	pl. ex.	yamuen, kami	niamuen, namin, namuen	diamuen
7-	l. inc.	yaiatin, ² ta		
Mag.		saki, aku salkami, kami	ku, salaki, laki salkami, nami, lekami	salaki, sa salaki salkami, sa salkami

Written iamo, evidently a mistake, in Bergaño.

² Perhaps a mistake for yatin, cf. yamuen. The forms given as genitive and oblique of this pronoun evidently belong to the pronoun of the second person. The Batan grammar from which these paradigms are quoted by Retana (cf. above, p. 323, ft. nt. 2) is in manuscript, according to Retana (p. xl) probably a copy of the original. The personal pronouns are given in the order, 1st sg., 1st exc. pl., 2^{sd} sg., and then follows a paradigm headed 'Piur. de yo inclusivo,' but with genitive and oblique apparently belonging to the second plural; no paradigm of the second plural is given. The copyist has evidently mixed up the paradigms of the 1st inc. pl. and 2^{sd} pl. The forms that we should expect in 1st inc. pl. gen. and obl. are niatin, diatin.

Mag.	pl. inc. salkitanu, seki- tanu, tanu, lekitanu	salkitanu, tanu, sa sa salkitanu	lkitanu, sa salki- tanu
	du. salkita, sekita,	salkita, sekita, ta, lekita	salkita, sa salkita
Sulu.	sg.1 aku, ku	ku, kaaku	
	pl. ex. kami	kaamu, kannamu, kanamu	
	pl. inc. kita	kaatu ·	
Bag.	sg. sakkan	ko	kanakkan
	pl. ex. kami, ke, si kami	de	kanami
	pl. inc.º kita, si kita	ta, nita	kanita

. The pronouns of the first person singular are practically all based on one of the root particles ak, ko, or ta.

Ak is found uncombined as nominative in Pangasinan, Ilokan, Nabaloi, and Ibanag: also in Tagalog, Bisayan, Bikol, Pampangan, Batan, Magindanao, and Sulu nominative ako, aku; in the ako, aku of the genitive and oblique cases in Bikol and Sulu, and in Harayan ako-ta; in the Tagalog and Batan stem ak-in and Bisayan stem ak-on, ák-o and their derivatives; in the nominatives, Pangasinan and Ilokan si-ak, Nabaloi sik-ak, Ibanag s-ak-an, s-ok (cf. above, p. 336), Bagobo s-ak-kan, and the oblique forms derived from them; in the Magindanao secondary stem aki in s-aki, etc.; in Nabaloi n-ak.

The nominative ako may represent a blend of the two root particles ak and ko, or it may be ak with an analogical o as in ikao 'thou' (cf. below, p. 375), due to the influence of other nominatives in o like tayo 'we,' kayo 'you.' In Harayan ako-ta the genitive ta is added to this form, probably for the sake of emphasis' (cf. Nab. sikam 'thou,' p. 375, below).

The Magindanao stem aki probably owes its final i to the analogy of the forms of the exclusive plural kami, etc. The n of Nabaloi n-ak is not clear; the form na, which seems to be

¹ The noun patek 'slave' is also used for 'I,' as in Malay.

³ These pronouns as given together in the paradigms as the equivalent of nosotros 'we,' but there is probably the same distinction here as in the other languages; for ke as exclusive plural cf. Pampangan.

³ Cf. my paper, The Bisayan Dialects, cited above, p. 127.

employed principally before verbal forms beginning with k, e. g., na-kaama-munu 'I am killing,' is probably a modification of nak, due to the fact that the final k of the pronoun and the initial k of the verb coalesce.

The Tagalog, Batan, and Bisayan stems ak-in, ak-on are made by adding the suffixes in and on to the root particle. These suffixes, which are variants of the same original form (cf. above, p. 331 f.), are found also in the passive, and in nominal derivation. When applied to a noun they express the idea of 'like, similar,' e. g., Tag. woakin 'cock black as a raven' from weak 'raven,' polotin 'honey (pet name),' from polot 'honey;' when applied to a verb they form passives that denote to be directly affected by the action of the root, e. g., Tag. inumin (inum) 'that which is drunk.' The meaning of the suffix in the pronouns is perhaps nearer that of the verbal suffix, Tagalog ak-in, for example, signifying 'that which is affected by me, that which pertains or belongs to me.' In the Cebuan stem ák-o, the final n was dropped, doubtless because it was regarded as ligature. The ako, aku of the genitive and oblique forms in Bikol and Sulu may be either the nominative ako, aku, or may correspond to the Cebuan stem ak-o derived from ak-on. element ya of Bikol oblique s-ako-ya is not clear; it may be the demonstrative root particle ya (cf. above, p. 352).

The stems of Ibanag s-akan, Bagobo s-akkan, are probably identical, the doubling in the latter being phonetic, and consist of the root particle with a suffix an, doubtless the same as the nominal and verbal suffix an, which expresses the idea of place, e. g., Tag. sagingan 'banana grove' from saging 'banana,' inuman 'vessel (drinking place)' from inum 'drink.' These forms would therefore mean literally 'the I place.'

The particle ko occurs uncombined as genitive in all the languages except Harayan, and apparently as nominative in Pampangan and Sulu. In Pampangan it may be a shortened form of ako. In Sulu it is genitive used as nominative (cf. below, p. 388). The -k of Pangasinan, Ilokan, Nabaloi, and Ibanag is a shortened form of ko. The Pampangan form koo, ke and kee are modifications of ko (cf. below, p. 387).

The particle ta occurs uncombined as genitive in Bisayan (except Samaro-Leytean), Nabaloi, and Ibanag. Pampangan da is probably a modification of this particle. It is found also in the Harayan nominative ako-ta (cf. above, p. 367).

The pronouns of the exclusive plural of the first person are practically all based on a particle mi, which occurs uncombined as genitive in Bikol, Pampangan, Pangasinan, Ilokan, Nabaloi, and Ibanag. It also occurs in Magindanao genitive na-mi, and in the nominative ku-mi of all the languages, and its derivatives with the various articular particles, viz., Pampangan i-kami, Samaro-Leytean, Pangasinan and Nabaloi si-kumi, Ibanag si-kami, ni-kami, Ilokan da-kami, Magindanao le-kami, salkumi, sa sal-kumi, and the oblique forms derived from them in Pampangan, Pangasinan, and Ilokan. The element ka of kami is perhaps due to the analogy of other plural forms like kayo 'you,' kata 'we all, we two.'

In Tagalog, Bisayan, Bikol, Batan, and Sulu, there is apparently a root particle am that forms in general the same combination as the ak of the singular; for example, in Tagalog, amin corresponding to akin. It is very likely, however, that all these forms with am are simply made on the basis of mi, after the analogy of the forms of the singular. The final uen of the Batan forms is simply the representation of in after the labial m,

cf. inumuen=Tagalog inumin 'drink.'

Pampangan and Bagobo ke in ke, i-ke is not clear. In Bagobo a particle de with the same vocalization, perhaps a modification

of the plural particle da, is used as genitive.

At the base of the forms of the inclusive plural, and of the dual when it occurs, lies the particle ta, doubtless identical with the ta of the singular, which is found uncombined as genitive plural in Bisayan, Bikol, Pampangan and Bagobo; as genitive dual in Tagalog, Cebuan, Pampangan, Pangasinan, Ilokan, Ibanag, and Magindanao; and as nominative plural in Batan, nominative dual in Pampangan, Ilokan, and Magindanao. The Pampangan forms tee, too are secondary modifications of ta (cf. below, p. 387). For Pangasinan ti, cf. below, p. 371.

Ta occurs also, combined with articular prefixes only, in Tagalog genitive dual ka-ni-ta and the oblique derived from it; Pampangan nominative plural, Pangasinan nominative dual i-ta; Ibanag dual forms i-tta, ni-tta, in which the doubling is phonetic; and in Bagobo ni-ta, Ilokan da-ta, and the oblique forms derived from them. It is found also in Tagalog genitive dual ata and the oblique derived from it, where the initial a is probably due to the analogy of the other genitive forms of the first person. For Pangasinan i-ti, cf. below, p. 371.

It occurs also combined with a following root particle of the second person, which probably emphasizes the inclusive signification of the pronoun, the combinations meaning literally 'your we,' the we of which you form a part,' in ta-yo, ta-mo, and ta-nu. Ta-yo occurs as nominative inclusive plural in Tagalog, Ilokan, and Nabaloi, and as genitive in Pangasinan, Ilokan, and Nabaloi. It also occurs with various case indicating prefixes in the nominatives Pangasinan i-tayo, Ilokan da-tayo, Pangasinan and Nabaloi sika-tayo, and the oblique forms derived from the last two in Ilokan and Pangasinan. Ta-mo occurs in Pampangan uncombined as nominative and genitive, in the nominative ka-tamo, in which ka is doubtless due to the analogy of plural and dual forms with initial ka, like kayo 'you,' and the oblique ke-katam in which the final o of katamo is dropped; it is found also without o, in the Ibanag forms tam, i-ttam, ni-ttam, the doubling in the last two forms being phonetic. Ta-nu occurs only in Magindanao: as all the forms of the inclusive plural have a corresponding form in the dual without nu, it seems more likely that nu was added to what are now the forms of the dual, but which had originally both inclusive plural and dual meaning, in order to differentiate between the two numbers, than that the inclusive forms were made independently upon a base tanu.

Ta also occurs in the plural and dual forms ka-ta and ki-ta: ka is probably to be explained as the ka in ka-mi; ki-ta perhaps represents a blend of ka-ta with i-ta, which occurs as nominative dual in Pangasinan and Ibanag, nominative plural in Pampangan. Kata occurs uncombined as plural nominative in Pampangan, and as dual nominative in Tagalog and Pampangan. It is found in combination with articular prefixes in Pampangan nominative dual i-kata, oblique dual and plural ke-kata, Pangasinan nominative dual si-kata and the oblique derived from it. Kita occurs uncombined as nominative plural in Bisayan, Bikol, Sulu, and Bagobo, and as nominative dual in Tagalog and Cebuan: with articular prefixes in Samaro-Leytean and Bagobo si kita; in Magindanao, where it is the basis of most

¹ In Ilokan the pronouns of the first and second persons plural datayo, tayo, dakami, kami, dakayo, kayo, often drop their final vowel in the middle of a sentence; cf. Naves, op. cit., p. 49 f.; H. W. Williams, op. cit., pp. 55, 56.

of the forms of both dual and plural (cf. below, p. 373); and in Pangasinan si-kiti (cf. below), and the oblique derived from it.

In Tagalog, Bisayan, Bikol, Batan, and Sulu plural there is apparently a root particle at which is made on the basis of ta, after the analogy of the singular, in the same way as the am of the exclusive plural. The forms based on at are made in the same way as those based on am. In Cebuan the forms based on at are used also as dual, with, however, a different accent.

The Pangasinan plural forms ti, i-ti, si-kiti seem to be modifications of ta, i-ta, si-kita; the final i being probably due to the influence of the exclusive forms mi, kami, etc.

The case indicating particles which are found in the pronouns of the first person are, in Tagalog n, sa, kani, in Cebuan n, sa, ka(n), in Hiliguayna n, ka, ka(n), d, sa, in Samaro-Leytean si, n, d, sa, in Harayan n, ka(n), in Bikol ni, s, in Pampangan i, kan, k, ke, in Pangasinan si, i, ed, in Ilokan si, da, kani, ka, in Nabaloi si, sika, sik, in Ibanag si, s, i, ni, in Batan i, yai(?), ni, n, di, in Magindanao se, s, le, l, sal, na, sa, in Sulu ka, kan, in Bagobo si, s, ni, kan, ka.

The prefixes i, ni, n, sa, ka, di, d, da, ke, ed, and the oblique case sign s of Bikol have already been explained in connection with the demonstratives (cf. above, p. 353 f.); kani is a combination of the two articular particles ka and ni. In the Bisayan sign ka(n) it is difficult to say whether the n belongs to the case sign or the following stem, i. e., whether forms like Cebuan kanato are to be analysed as ka + the genitive forms like nato, or as kan + the genitive forms like ato. Si is identical with the si of the personal article, and s in Ibanag s-akan, Magindanao saki, Bagobo s-akkan, is doubtless based upon it; Magindanao se also is probably based on si, the e being due to the influence of the case sign le. Pampangan k in kako is derived from ka, a having coalesced with the a of ako. Nabaloi sika, sik in sikatayo, sik-ak are based upon a wrong division of forms like sikami, a combination of the stem kami with the case sign si; in sikak the a of sika coalesces with the a of ak. The apparent case sign yai in Batan yaiatin, if it is not simply due to a typographical error, is the result of the reduplication of the first syllable ya of yatin, a combination of the stem atin and case sign i. Magindanao na of na-mi is identical with the genitive of the definite article: since Magindanao has been strongly influenced by Arabic (cf. above, p. 322), the case sign le, l, which occurs in none of the other languages, may be the Arabic preposition J li, which is used to express a dative and sometimes a genitive idea; sal is a combination of this element with the case sign sa.

In the formation of the cases these particles are added, sometimes to a root particle, sometimes to a modified form of a root particle or to a secondary stem, sometimes to another case form. The forms of the nominative and genitive are often

without case sign.

In the nominative, Samaro-Leytean has si in all numbers in the forms si ako, si kami, si kita: Pampangan has i in the plural and dual forms i-kami, i-ke, i-ta, i-kamo, i-kata: Pangasinan has si in all numbers in the forms si-ak, si-kami, si-kiti, si-kata; sika in sika-tayo; and i in inclusive plural and dual in the form i-ti, i-tayo, i-ta: Ilokan has si in the singular si-ak; and da in the plural and dual forms da-kami, etc.: Nabaloi has si in si-kame; sika, sik in sika-tayo, sik-ak: Ibanag has si in si-kami; s in s-akkan, s-ok; and i in i-ttam, i-tta: Batan has i(y) in all three numbers in y-akin, yaiatin (cf. above, p. 366, ft. nt.), y-amuen: Magindanao has s in s-aki; se in se-kitanu, se-kita; le in le-kitanu; and sal in plural and dual sal-kumi, sal-kitanu, sal-kita; the forms with le and sal are genitiveoblique forms used as nominative: Bagobo has s in the singular s-akkan; si in the plurals si kami, si kita. Nominative forms without case sign, consisting of a root particle, a secondary stem, or some modification of these, are found in all the languages, Tagalog, Bisayan (except Samaro-Leytean), Bikol and Sulu having only forms of this kind.

In the genitive in Tagalog, Bisayan, and Batan there are a number of forms made on the basis of stems derived from the root particles ak, am, and at by the addition of the suffix, in, en, on. For the analogical character of the forms of the plural cf. above, pp. 369, 371. These stems occur in Tagalog and Bisayan both uncombined, and with case sign n, e. g., Hil. ak-on, n-ak-on, in Batan only with the case signs ni or n, e. g.,

ni-amuen, n-amuen.

In Bikol the case signs of the genitive ni, s are prefixed in the singular to ako, which is either nominative or identical with Cebuan genitive ako, in the plural to the stems amo, ato, made after the analogy of ako. In Sulu the stems aku, amu, atu, to which the ease signs ka, kan are prefixed, are susceptible of the same two explanations as the Bikol forms. The double n in kunnamu is perhaps due to the analogy of forms like kan-nia 'his' (cf. below, p. 385).

In Magindanao in the singular the case signs l and sal are prefixed to the secondary stem aki; in the plural and dual the case signs are all prefixed to the stems kami, kitanu, kita except in na-mi, where na is prefixed to the root particle. In Bagobo the case sign ni is prefixed to the root particle in ni-ta. Genitive forms without case sign, consisting of a root particle or secondary stem, or of some modification of these, are found in all the languages, Pampangan, Pangasinan, Ilokan, Nabaloi, and Ibanag having only genitives of this kind.

In the oblique, Tagalog prefixes sa to the forms of the genitive beginning with a, and in the dual also to the genitive with case sign kani: Cebuan has two series of forms, one in which sa is prefixed to genitive forms with initial a, one in which ka(n)is prefixed to genitive forms (cf. above, p. 371): Hiliguayna has four series of forms, two like those in Cebuan, one in which the case sign d is prefixed to forms with initial a, one in which . an additional case sign ka is prefixed to the forms with initial d: Samaro-Leytean has two series of forms identical with the Hiliguayna forms with initial sa and d: Harayan has apparently only one series, identical with the series with initial k: the Bikol oblique forms are identical with the genitives with initial s: Pampangan makes its oblique singular by prefixing kan and k to ako, probably the nominative, the oblique of the other members by prefixing ka to the nominative with articular i, ka + i becoming ke: Pangasinan prefixes ed to the nominative with articular si: Ilokan makes its oblique singular by prefixing kani to the root ak, the oblique of the other numbers by prefixing ka to the nominative with initial da: Ibanag substitutes ni, Batan di, for the case signs of the nominative: in Magindanao, the oblique case signs sal or sa sal are prefixed to the same stems as in the genitive.

Second Person.

The forms of the personal pronouns of the second person are, viz.:

	nom.	gen.	obl.
Tag.	sg. ikao, ka	iyo, mo (niyo)1	sa iyo
1.09.	pl. kayo, (kamo)		sa inyo
Bis. (Ceb.)	sg. ikao, ka	imo, nimo, mo	kanimo, sa imo
Dis. (Oci.)	pl. kamo	inyo, ninyo	kaninyo, sa inyo
Bis. (Hil.)	sg. ikao, ka	imo, nimo, mo	kanimo, sa imo, dimo, karimo
v "	pl. kamo	inyo, ninyo	kaninyo, sa inyo, dinyo, karinyo
Bis. (SamLey	y.) sg. ikao, ka, si ik	cao imo, nimo, mo	sa imo, dimo
	pl. kamo, si kame	o iyo, niyo	sa iyo, diyo
Bis. (Har.)	sg. ikao, kao, ka	imo, nimo, mo	kanimo
Bik.	sg. ika	mo, nimo, saimo, simo	saimo, simo
	pl. kamo	nindo	saindo
Pamp.	sg. ika, ka	mo, moo, me, mee ²	keka²
	pl. ikayo, kayo, iko, ko	yo, yoo, ye, yee	kekayo, keko
Pang.	sg. sika, ka	mo, -m	ed sika
	pl. sikayo, siki, kayo, ki	yo	ed sikayo, ed siki
Ilok.	sg. sika, ka	mo, -m	kenka
	pl. dakayo, kayo	yo	kadakayo
Igor. (Nab.)	sg. sikam, ka pl. sikayo, kayo	mo, -m dyo	
Iban.	sg. sikau, ka	mu, -m	nikau
Aban.	pl. sikamu, kamu		nikamu
Bat.	sg. imu, ka	nimo, mo	dimo
Dut.	pl.	ninio, nio	dinio
Mag.	sg. ka, saleka, seka	nengka, saleka, sa salka, leka, k	salka, sa salka
	pl. kanu, salkanu	salkanu, sa sal- kanu, nu, niu, lekanu	salkanu, sa salkanu
Sulu	sg. ekau, kau, nio		
	pl. kamu	kaimu	
Bag.	sg. kona, ka, si kona	niko, no	kaniko, niko
	pl. kio, ko, si kio	nio	kanio

¹ Used only in the phrase a-niyo 'inquis.'

² In place of the genitive and oblique forms, which are given elsewhere in the text. the forms of the pronoun of the first person singular are repeated in Bergaño's paradigm.

³ Cf. above, p. 366, ft. nt. 2.

The root particles upon which the pronouns of the second person, singular and plural, are based, are ku, mo, yo, and nu.

Ka occurs uncombined as nominative singular in all the languages except Bikol and Sulu, and also as genitive in Magindanao. It is found also in the nominatives, Sulu and Harayan, kau, kao, and with articular prefixes, Bikol and Pampangan i-ka, Pangasinan and Ilokan si-ka, Tagalog and Bisayan i-kao, Sulu e-kuu, Ibanag si-kau, Nabaloi si-ka-m: in the oblique forms Pampangan ke-ka, Pangasinan ed si-ka, Ilokan ken-ka, Ibanag nikau; in all the forms with case signs in Magindanao. The forms in o, u, probably owe this final element to the analogy of other pronominal forms ending in o, u, like tayo, kayo. The final m of the Nabaloi form is probably an added genitive element of the same person, like the ta in Harayan ako-ta (cf. above, p. 367). In the Bagobo genitive and oblique forms ni-ko, ka-ni-ko; ko probably represents a modification of ka due to the analogy of the genitive no. The particle ko which is found in Pampangan and Bagobo in the plural forms ko, i-ko, ke-ko, is probably a blend of the singular ka with the final o of the plural form kayo, which o was felt as a sign of the plural. Similarly Pangasinan ki in the plural forms ki, si-ki, ed si-ki, is probably a blend of ka with the final i of plural forms of the first person, viz., kami, sikiti, etc.

Ka occurs also in the plural stems ka-yo, ka-mo, ka-nu, which are made up of two root particles of the second person. Kayo is found uncombined as nominative plural in Tagalog, Pampangan, Pangasinan, Ilokan, and Nabaloi, and with articular prefixes in the nominatives, Pampangan i-kayo, Pangasinan and Nabaloi si-kayo, Ilokan da-kayo, and the oblique forms derived from them. Bagobo kio in kio, si-kio, is, perhaps, a modification of kayo, due to the analogy of the genitive nio. Kamo occurs uncombined in Bisayan, Bikol, Ibanag, Sulu, and in certain dialects of Tagalog, and with articular prefixes in Ibanag si-kamu, ni-kamu. Kanu is found only in Magindanao both uncombined and with articular prefixes. Bagobo kona in kona, si-kona, may represent a metathesis of *ka-no. The ka of Pampangan katamo 'we,' and of the Pangasinan and Nabaloi case sign si-ka, is an analogical element based on forms like ka-yo, ka-mo 'you,' where ka is root particle.

Mo occurs uncombined as genitive in all the languages except Magindanao and Bagobo. The genitive -m of Pangasinan, Ilokan, Nabaloi and Ibanag is a shortened form of mo: it is found also in Nabaloi nominative si-ka-m (cf. above). Pampangan moo, me, mee, are secondary modifications of mo (cf. below, p. 387). Mo also occurs with case indicating prefixes in the Bisayan genitives i-mo, ni-mo and the oblique forms derived from them, in Bikol ni-mo, si-mo, sai-mo, Batan i-mu, ni-mo, di-mo, and Sulu kai-mu; it is used, moreover, in the formation of the plural stems, second person ka-mo (cf. above), first person ta-mo (cf. above, p. 370).

Yo occurs uncombined as genitive plural in Pampangan, Pangasinan, Ilokan, and Nabaloi (dyo < *yo, cf. above, p. 335). Pampangan yoo, ye, yee are secondary modifications of yo (cf. below, p. 387). With case indicating prefixes, yo is found in the genitives, Tagalog singular, Samaro-Leytean plural i-yo, ni-yo, Tagalog, Cebuan, and Hiliguayna plural in-yo, nin-yo, and the oblique forms derived from them; and in the Batan plural forms nin-io, din-io (io = yo); it is also used as an element of the plural stems, second person ka-yo (cf. above), first person ta-yo (cf. above, p. 370).

Batan, Magindanao and Bagobo genitive, Sulu, nominative niu, nio, which is found also in Sulu ka-nio kan-nio, Batan ka-nio, is probably to be analysed as case sign ni + yo, the form representing either a different spelling of niyo, or a phonetic variant, with y changed to the hiatus or glottal catch (cf. forms with ia for iya, below, p. 381). Bikol nindo, saindo, are probably modifications of forms identical with Tagalog ninyo, sa inyo, the d being due to the analogy of the corresponding forms of the third person plural, viz., ninda, sa inda.

The particle no occurs uncombined as genitive plural in Ibanag and Magindanao, and as genitive singular in Bagobo. It is also used in Magindanao in the plural stem of the second person ka-nu (cf. above) and as a final element of all forms of the first person inclusive plural. It is not impossible that this no is a modification of mo or yo, the n being due to the influence of other pronominal genitive forms with initial n.

The case indicating prefixes which are found in the pronouns of the second person are, in Tagalog, i, n(i), in, sa, in Cebuan i, n(i), in, sa, ka(n), in Hiliguayna i, n(i), in, sa, ka(n), d(i), ka,

in Samaro-Leytean i, si, n(i) sa, d(i), in Harayan i, n(i), ka(n), in Bikol i, n(i), sa, s, in, in Pampangan i, ka, in Pangasinan si, ed, in Ilokan si, da, ken, ka, in Nabaloi si, in Ibanag si, ni, in Batan i, n(i), d(i), in, in Magindanao se, sal, sale, le, neng, sa, in Sulu e, ka, kan, i, in Bagobo si, ni, ka.

The prefixes i (of nom.), si, se, da, ni, sa, s, (of gen.-obl.), sal, le, ka, ka(n), kan, ke, ed, have already been explained (cf. above, pp. 353 f., 371). The prefix i in the Tagalog and Bisayan genitive forms i-yo, i-mo is probably the same as the prepositional i in Ilokan oblique of the definite article i-ti. Whether the i in Batan nominative i-mu is this prepositional i or the articular i of the nominative is difficult to say. The e of Sulu ekau, though long, seems to be identical with articular i (cf. pēla 'how much ?'=Bis. pila). In the Tagalog, Bisayan, Bikol, and Batan case signs n(i) and d(i) it is uncertain whether the i is this prepositional i, or the final i of the case signs ni and di, i. e. whether the forms niyo, nimo, diyo, dimo, in Tagalog, Bisayan, Bikol and Batan, are to be analysed as i-yo, i-mo with prefixed case signs n and d, or as ni-yo, di-mo, etc. The case signs n and d would of course be derived from ni and di (cf. above, p. 354). Ilokan ken is probably contracted from *ka-i-n with the two ligatures i and n. In Magindanao, sale is a fuller form of sal; neng contains the ligature ng; the e is an indistinct vowel, as is shown by the spelling ngka,' and not the result of the contraction of a diphthong; ne may, therefore, represent a reduced form of nu, the genitive of the definite arti-The Tagalog, Cebuan, Hiliguayna, Bikol, and Batan prefix in, which occurs both as initial and with additional prefixed case signs, is not clear. It may be the prepositional i of iyo followed by the ligature n, the prefix being thus similar to the prefixes an, in, un, of the Cebuan and Pampangan interrogatives. In the forms with compound prefix like nin-yo, din-yo, the i is of the same ambiguous character as in forms like ni-yo, di-yo (cf.

In general the case signs are used in the formation of cases as in the first person.

In the nominative Tagalog, Bisayan and Bikol have i in the singular forms, i-kao, i-ka: Samaro-Leytean has si in the forms

¹ Cf. Porter, Primer of the Moro Dialect, Washington, 1903, passim.

si ikao, si kamo: Pampangan has i in both singular and plural in the forms i-ka, i-kayo, i-ko: Pangasinan, Nabaloi and Ibanag have si in both singular and plural in the forms si-ka, si-kayo, si-ki; si-kam, si-kayo; si-kau, si-kamu: Ilokan has si in singular si-ka; da in plural da-kayo: Batan has i, whether articular or prepositional i is doubtful, in singular i-mu: Magindanao has se and sale in the singular se-ka, sale-ka; sal in the plural sal-kanu: Sulu has e=i, in e-kaw: Bagobo has si in the forms si kona, si kio. Nominative forms without case sign, consisting of a root particle or plural stem, or some modification of these, are found in all the languages.

In the genitive in a number of languages secondary stems are made by prefixing prepositional i and the particle in to the root particles, viz., Tag. i-yo, in-yo, Bis. i-yo, i-mo, in-yo, Bik. i-mo, in-do (cf. above, p. 376), Batan i-mo, in-io, Sulu i-mu. In Tagalog and Bisayan these stems occur both uncombined and with the prefixed case signs n, e. g., Tag. inyo, n-inyo. . In the other languages they are found only with case signs, Bikol n(i), n, sa, s in nimo, n-indo, sa-imo, s-imo; Batan n(i), n in nimo, n-inio, Sulu ka in ka-imu. In Magindanao the case signs are prefixed to the nominatives ka and kanu; neng, le, sale, sa sal to ka; le, sal, sa sal to kanu. In Sulu the case signs ka and kan are prefixed in the singular to the form nio, which though used as a nominative is formally a genitive; in the plural, ka is prefixed to the secondary stem imu. In Bagobo, ni is prefixed to the root particle in nio=ni-yo, and ni-ko, in which ko is a modified form of ka (cf. above, p. 375). Genitive forms without case signs, consisting of a root particle either unchanged or in some modified form, are found in all the languages, Pampangan, Pangasinan, Ilokan, Nabaloi, and Ibanag having only forms of this kind.

In the oblique Tagalog prefixes the case sign sa to the genitives with initial i; each of the Bisayan dialects has the same series of forms based on the genitives as in the first person, the analysis of the forms with initial kan, di, and kari being ambiguous. In Bikol in the singular, as in the first person, the oblique forms are identical with the genitives with initial s, in the plural the case sign sa is prefixed to the secondary stem indo. In Batan in the plural the case sign d is prefixed to the secondary stem inio; the singular dimo has the case sign d(i).

In Bagobo the case sign ka is prefixed to the genitive in ka-niko, ka-nio; the genitive niko is also used as oblique. In Pampangan, Pangasinan, Ilokan, Ibanag, and Magindanao the case signs are prefixed to the nominative. In Pampangan, keka, kekayo and keko are derived from the nominatives ika, ikayo and iko by prefixing ka; kai becoming ke. Pangasinan forms its oblique by prefixing ed to the nominatives with case sign si, Ibanag changes this si to ni. Ilokan forms its singular by prefixing ken to the nominative ka, its plural by prefixing ka to the nominative with case sign da. In Magindanao, sal and sal sal are prefixed to ka and kanu.

Third Person.

The forms of the personal pronouns of the third person are, viz.:

	nom.	gen.	obl.
Tag.	sg. siya	niya	kaniya
	pl.1 sila	nila	kanila
Bis. (Ceb.)	sg. siya²	niya,2 iya,2 na	kaniya, saiya,
	pl. sila	nila, ila	kanila, saila
Bis. (Hil.) .	sg. siya²	niya,* iya	kaniya, sa iya, dia, karia, sang iya
	ol. { sila sanda	nila, ila	kanila, sa ila, dila, sang ila
	sanda	nanda, anda	kananda, sa anda
Bis. (SamLey.)	sg. siya	niya, iya	kaniya, diya, sa iya
	pl. sira	nira, ira	dira, sa ira
Bis. (Har.)	sg. tana	ana, na	kana, kanana, kaniya
	pl. sanda	anda, nanda	kananda
Bik.	sg. siya	niya	saiya
	pl. sinda	ninda	sainda
Pamp. '	sg. iya, ya, na, ne	na, ne, nee, no, noo	keya
	pl. ila, la, no	da, de, dee, doo	karela
Pang.	sg. sikato	to	ed sikato
	pl. sikara, ra, ira	da, ra	ed sikara

¹ The forms of the plural may also be reduplicated, e. g., silasila, kanikanila.

⁹ These forms are also written with ia instead of iya.

Ilok.	sg. isu	na	kenkuana, kaniana
	pl. isuda, da, ida	da	kadakuada, kaniada
Igor. (Nab.)	sg. sikato, to	to	
	pl. sikara, si era, era	cha, ra	
Iban.	sg. ya	na	sa
	pl. ira	da	nira .
Bat.	sg. ya, sia	na, nia	dia,¹ sia¹
	pl. sira, sa	nira, dara²	dira, sira,º da,º raº
Mag.	sg. salkanin, sekanin, nin	salkanin, sa { salkanin, na lekanin, nin	salkanin, kana { salkanin sa {
	pl. silan, salkilan	kanilan, sa kani- lan, nilan	kanilan, sa kanilan
Sulu	sg. sia, nia	nia, kansia, kannia	
	pl. sila, nila	kansila, kanila	
· Bag.	sg. kandin, si kandin	din	kandin
	pl. kandan, si kandan	dan	kandan

The pronouns of the third person singular all appear to be based on one of the particles ya, na, to, su, and nin. Ya and na are probably identical respectively with the ligatures and articular and demonstrative particles ya, na; to is probably identical with the demonstrative particle to; su with the Batan and Pangasinan article su, so; nin is perhaps the demonstrative root particle ni + the ligature n.

Ya occurs uncombined in the nominative in Pampangan, Ibanag, and Batan; with case indicating prefix in the nominative in Tagalog, Bisayan (except Harayan), and Bikol si-ya, Batan and Sulu nominative sia (for si-ya), Pampangan i-ya,

¹ These case forms are headed 'Dat. ac. abl;' sia doubtless belongs to ac.=accusative; cf. above, p. 841, ft. nt. 2.

² Probably a mistake for da, ra, cf. oblique, and Pangasinan and Nabaloi genitive. The use of a reduplicated form in the plural, however, is a priori quite natural, and is found in Tagalog (cf. above. p. 379, ft. nt. 1), hence it is possible that the form is correct.

³ These forms are given under the head of 'Acus.'=accusative.

Sulu nia (borrowed from the genitive), in the genitive in Tagalog, Bisayan (except Harayan), and Bikol ni-ya, Batan and Sulu nia (for ni-ya), Bisayan (except Harayan) i-ya; and in all the oblique forms in Tagalog, Bisayan (in Harayan only in kani-ya), Bikol, Pampangan, and Batan. In the forms written with ia for iya we have either a variant spelling, or the intervocalic y has been changed to the hiatus or glottal catch (cf. nio for niyo above, p. 376).

Na occurs uncombined as genitive in Cebuan, Harayan, Pampangan, Ilokan, Ibanag, and Batan, and as nominative in Pampangan. In Harayan it is the root particle of the pronoun in all its forms with the exception of the oblique kani-ya. The ta of the nominative tana is perhaps to be connected with the demonstrative root particle ta. The initial a of the genitive ana is probably due to the analogy of the plural form anda (cf. below). Na also forms the basis of the Ilokan oblique forms kenkua-na, kania-na. The Pampangan forms ne, nee, no, noo, are probably secondary modifications of na (cf. below, p. 387). It is not likely that no has any connection with the particle nu, no of the second person.

To is found only in Pangasinan and Nabaloi, both uncombined, and with prefixed case signs in Pangasinan and Nabaloi sika-to, Pangasinan ed sika-to.

Su occurs only in Ilokan singular i-su with articular i, and in isu, a prefix of the nominative plural (cf. below).

Nin forms the basis of all the forms of the pronoun in Magindanao. With this nin the particle din which forms the basis of the pronoun in Bagobo is perhaps to be connected, the initial d being due to the influence of the plural dan.

What Ibanag sa represents is doubtful. An original s seems to be preserved in Ibanag only before i, otherwise becoming t (cf. above, p. 333); hence sa can hardly be connected with the articular sa of the other languages. It may be contracted from *sia < *siya just as perhaps sakan 'I' from *si-akan, though it is difficult to see why such a form should be used as oblique.

The pronouns of the third person plural, with the exception of Batan sa, which is perhaps identical with the inclusive article of Bisayan and Bikol, are all based on one of the particles da, ra; la, which are perhaps ultimately identical.

Da occurs uncombined as genitive in Pampangan, Pangasinan, Ilokan, Nabaloi (cha < *da) and Ibanag; as nominative in Ilokan; and as oblique in Batan. Pampangan de, dee, doo are secondary modifications of da (cf. below, p. 387). Bagobo dan in dan, kan-dan, si kan-dan, is probably da+the ligature n. Da is found also with case indicating prefixes in Hiliguayna and Harayan stem an-da, the Bikol stem in-da, and in the Ilokan forms isu-da, i-da, kania-da, kadakua-da, and in the compound case sign ka-dakua of the last (cf. below, p. 384). It also forms the first element of Batan genitive da-ra (cf. above, p. 380, ft. nt. 2). The an and in of the stems an-da, in-da are probably to be explained as articular a, i+ ligature n, like the prefixes an, in, un, of the interrogative pronouns (cf. above, p. 361).

The particle ra occurs preceded by case signs ending in a vowel in Samaro-Leytean, Pangasinan, Nabaloi, Ibanag and Batan: la is found in Tagalog, Cebuan, Hiliguayna, Pampangan, Magindanao, and Sulu under similar conditions; the final n of the Magindanao forms is probably due to the analogy of the singular. Ra occurs uncombined in Pangasinan genitive and nominative, Nabaloi genitive, and Batan oblique, and in Batan da-ra (cf. above). La occurs uncombined as nominative in Pampangan.

It is difficult to determine with certainty the exact relation of the three particles da, ra, la. Ra seems almost certainly to be simply a phonetic modification of da, in all the languages in which it occurs. This is indicated by the following facts. In all these languages da and ra occur alongside of one another (in Samaro-Leytean cf. the forms of the inclusive article), and as the change of intervocalic d to r is a common phenomenon of these languages (cf. above, p. 334), and as they seem to present no change from r to d, the supposition lies near at hand that the two are simply different forms of the same particle, da being the more original form. This supposition is strengthened by the evidence of Ilokan, which does not change intervocalic d to r, where the form corresponding to Pangasinan and Ibanag ira, Nabaloi era. is ida. According to this explanation the r of the uncombined form ra of Pangasinan, Nabaloi, and Batan would be due to the analogy of forms like ira, where the r is organic.

The particle la is perhaps a further phonetic modification of this ra resulting from original da after a vowel. It is true that r resulting from intervocalic d is regularly retained in these languages, but as words of very frequent use often suffer special phonetic changes, it may be that in these pronouns the secondary r became l just as original r became l in these languages (cf. above, p. 333). In this case the uncombined la of Pampangan would be analogical like the uncombined ra.

It is also possible, however, to suppose that la is a particle distinct from da. If so it can hardly represent an original la, as in that case the intervocalic l would have been lost in Tagalog and Sulu, but as in the languages where la is found l often represents an r of the other languages (cf. above, p. 333), the original form of the particle was perhaps ra. If this supposition is correct, the ra in some of the forms may be referred to the same original particle, as original r is usually retained in these languages, but in just which forms, it would be difficult to say.

The case indicating prefixes that are found in the pronouns of the third person are in Tagalog si, n(i), ka(n), Cebuan si, n(i), i, ka(n), sa, in Hiliguayna si, si, n(i), ni, ika(n), d(i), ka, sa, sang, in Samaro-Leytean si, n(i), ika(n), d(i), sa, in Harayan si, ika, ika,

The signs i (of nom.), si, s (of nom.), sika, i (prepositional), in, na, n(i), n, sa, d(i), ka, ka(n), kan, ed have already been explained (cf. above, pp. 353 f., 371, 377).

The ambiguous signs are found in the following forms: n(i) in niya, nia, nilan, nira, in Tagalog, Bisayan, Bikol, Ibanag, Batan, Magindanao, and Sulu; ka(n) in kaniya, kanilan in Tagalog, Bisayan, and Magindanao, in kananda in Hiliguayna and Harayan; d(i) in dia, dila, dira in Hiliguayna, Samaro-Leytean, and Batan. I in Pampangan, Pangasinan, Ilokan, and Ibanag is articular (cf. above, p. 353); in Bisayan, prepositional (cf. above, p. 344); Nabaloi e is probably a modification of articular i due to the following r; Hiliguayna sang is the genitive of the definite article; Pampangan kare is probably borrowed from the oblique plural of the demonstratives kareni, kareti, etc.; Ilokan

isu is the pronoun of the third person singular used as case sign; kenkua and kadakua contain the noun kua (cf. above, p. 347) and the case signs ken (cf. above, p. 377), and kada, which is derived by a wrong division from the oblique plural forms of the first and second persons, e. g., ka-datayo, where the da belongs to the stem and not to the oblique case sign; kunia in the forms kaniana and kaniada is a combination of the particles ka and ni with an a which is probably due to a wrong division of the case signs containing knu, viz., kadaku-unu, kadaku-In Magindanao, kana is the genitive and oblique of the definite article; the ka of seka, leka and salka is probably due to a wrong division of forms like sal-kann 'you' where the ku belongs to the pronominal stem and not to the case sign; salki may be borrowed in the same way from forms like sal-kita, 'we two.' or it may be the case sign salka with the a changed to i. before la after the analogy of the other forms of the plural; for the elements se, le, sal, cf. above, pp. 371, 372.

In general the case signs are used in the formation of cases as in the pronouns of the first and second persons.

In the nominative, Tagalog, Cebuan, Hiliguayna, Samaro-Levtean, Batan, and Sulu, prefix si to the root particles ya and la, ra in both singular and plural, in si-ya (sia), si-la, si-ra. In Hiliguayna and Harayan plural the case sign s is prefixed to the stem anda. In Bikol, si is prefixed to the root particle ya in the singular, s, to the stem inda in the plural. In Pampangan, i is prefixed to the root particle in singular i-ya, plural i-la. In Pangasinan and Nabaloi in the singular, sika is prefixed to the root particle in sika-to; in the plural both prefix sika and i, e to the root particle da or ra, and Nabaloi makes an additional form by prefixing si to the form with case sign e. prefixes i to the root particle in singular i-su, plural i-da, and also makes a plural form by prefixing isu to the root particle. Ibanag has i in the plural i-ra. In Magindanao in the singular the signs seka, salka are prefixed to the root particle nin; in the plural si and salki are prefixed to lan, the root particle la with an analogical n derived from the singular. In Sulu the case signs si and ni are prefixed to the root particles in singular and plural, sia and nia being equivalent to si-ya, ni-ya: the forms with ni are borrowed from the genitive (cf. below, p. 388). In Bagobo the nominative of both numbers seems to

be identical with the oblique; the nominative, however, may take the additional case sign si.

Nominative forms without case sign are found in Harayan (tana cf. above, p. 381), Pampangan, Pangasinan, Ilokan, Nabaloi, Ibanag, Batan and Magindanao, consisting, with the exception of Batan sa (cf. above, p. 381) of a root particle, two root particles (tana), or a modified form of a root particle.

In the genitive, Bisavan (except Harayan), as in the pronouns of the second person, makes genitives by prefixing prepositional i to the root particles, viz., i-ya, i-la. It is not impossible that the genitive forms niya(nia), nila of Tagalog, Bisayan, Bikol, Batan, Magindanao, and Sulu are based on this stem, the case sign being n, but it seems more likely that they consist of the case sign ni + the root particle. Hiliguayna, Harayan, and Bikol prefix in the plural the case sign n to the stems anda, inda. In Magindanao in the singular, the case signs leka, salka, na salka, sa salka, are prefixed to the root particle nin; in the plural the forms are based on lan (cf. above), the case signs being n(i), ka(n), and sa ka(n). Sulu kanila has the case sign ka(n); in kan-nia, kan is prefixed to the genitive; in kan-sia, kan-sila, to the nominative. Genitive forms without case sign, consisting of a root particle or stem, or some modification of a root particle, are found in all the languages except Tagalog, Samaro-Leytean, Bikol and Sulu.

In the oblique, the Tagalog forms may be based either on the genitive or the secondary stem with initial i, the case sign being ka(n). Each of the Bisayan dialects has in general the same series of forms as in the pronouns of the first and second persons; the forms with case sign sa are based on the secondary stem with initial i; the forms kaniya, kanila, kananda have the case sign ka(n) as in Tagalog; the forms with initial d and kar have the case sign d(i); in Harayan, oblique forms are made from the genitives na, ana by prefixing ka and kan respectively. In Hiliguayna there is an additional series of forms made by prefixing sang, the genitive of the definite article, to the stem with initial i; in Samaro-Leytean, in addition to the regular series, there is the form kaniya with case sign ka(n). The Bikol forms are made by prefixing sa to the stems with prefixed i and in. Pampangan makes its singular by prefixing ka to the nominative with articular i; in the plural we VOL. XXVII. .

should expect *kela, but the form has become karela under the influence of the demonstratives. In Pangasinan, ed is prefixed to the nominative with case sign si. In Ilokan the case signs are prefixed to the root particles, kenkua and kadakua in the singular and plural respectively, kania, to both numbers. In Ibanag the plural nira contains the sign n(i); for the singular sa cf. above, p. 381. Batan has the forms dia, dira with sign d(i), also sia and sira identical with the nominative. Magindanao all the forms are identical with genitive forms, except kana salkanin, in which kana salka is prefixed to the root particle. In Bagobo kan is prefixed to the genitive. The only oblique forms without case sign are Batan da and ra, which are given as accusative forms (cf. above, p. 380, ft. nt. 3). These forms may be really genitives, their presence under the head of accusative being due to a mistake of the grammarian or copyist (cf. above, p. 366, ft. nt. 2).

General Remarks on Case Formation.

Generally speaking, the inflection of pronouns in the Philippine languages is initial, and is based on the forms of the articles. The nominative is often without case sign, especially in the personal pronouns, but is also frequently indicated by initial i, si, which are identical respectively with the i of the nominatives, Ibanag i, Pampangan i-ng, etc., of the definite article, and si of the personal article; it is also sometimes indicated by s derived from si.

The genitive is most frequently characterized by an initial n. As the ligatures na, n, are still often used between two nouns that stand to one another in the relation of genitive and modified noun, e. g. Tag. bahay na bato, 'house of stone,' baro-n kastila, 'a shirt of Spain, Spanish shirt,' it is very likely that the genitive sign n is derived from them.

In the personal pronouns there are a number of genitive forms without case sign. These forms, which are usually root particles, are placed after the modified word, the genitive being originally indicated simply by the postposition. Doubtless in some primitive stage of the Philippine languages, any root particle might be thus used as a genitive, but in the course of time, however, certain root particles were adapted to this use (so with ko and mo of the first and second persons respectively), others being excluded.

In Pampangan the number of genitive forms of this kind has been greatly increased by modifying the final vowel of the root particle. There are five series of these forms, the endings being a, o, e, oo, ee. Of the forms in a, all are unmodified root particles except da (1. sg.) [cf. above, p. 368]. Of the forms in o; ko, mo and yo are root particles; no (3. sg.) is modified from na on the analogy of these forms. The forms in e, viz., ke, me, ye, ne, de, are all secondary; the e may have arisen from the combination of a root particle ending in a, e. g. na (3. sg.) with ligature i, and then have been extended to the other forms. The forms in oo and ee are derived from the o and e series respectively by repeating the final vowel. The repetition seems to be emphatic, these forms being used when the subject of the verb of which they are the agent, is omitted.

This expression of the genitive by simple postposition has been extended in Ilokan to the other pronouns, e. g. ti balay ti tao, 'the house of the man,' iti atep toy a balay, 'the thatch of this house,' so that the genitives of the various pronouns are always identical with some form of the nominative.

The oblique case is never without a case indicating prefix, except in the doubtful Batan forms da, ra (cf. above, p. 386). It is usually characterized by an initial d, s, or k, derived respectively from the oblique case forms of the articles di, sa, and ka. These oblique case forms are prepositional in character, but have this peculiarity, viz., that they denote not only the case, but also the idea of the definite, personal or inclusive article before a following noun, For example, 'in the house' is in Tagalog not literally sa and sa bahay, but simply sa bahay, the oblique sa expressing both the idea of 'in,' and that of the definite article.

• It is quite common for forms which have oblique case signs to be used as genitives, as, for example, in the Sulu personal pronouns, and instances also occurs in which forms with genitive case sign are used as oblique, for example, in the Cebuan demonstratives and Ibanag personal pronouns.

The identity of nominative and genitive forms in Ilokan has already been mentioned. Other instances of this identity are found, especially in Pampangan and certain languages of the Northern Group, and there especially in the inclusive article, and the plural of other pronouns. In the Sulu personal pronouns the use of genitive forms in the nominative is probably due to the fact that both nominative and genitive forms are found after the case sign kan, e. g. kan-sia, kan-nia, thus giving rise to the idea that the forms like sia and genitive forms

like nia are equivalent.

Oblique case forms are found in the nominative in the Magindanao personal pronouns, the Cebuan demonstratives and interrogatives with initial k, the Harayan demonstratives with initial d, and the Bagobo pronouns of the third person. In the Magindanao personal pronouns the case forms are very much confused, some forms being used for all three cases. In the demonstratives, the use of the oblique forms in the nominative is probably due to the fact that certain adverbs of place, identical with the oblique forms of the demonstratives, were used as simple demonstratives, 'the there man,' or 'the man there,' being used as the equivalent of 'this man,' (cf. the use of the Cebuan adverb karon, above p. 351, ft. nt. 1.) The oblique case signs thus introduced into the nominative became the regular nominative case signs of the demonstratives, and in Cebuan, were also extended to the interrogatives. The nominative forms of the Bagobo pronouns of the third person are possibly to be explained in the same way, inasmuch as pronouns of the third person and demonstratives are very closely related.

The nominative forms given under the oblique in Batan are probably used only in the accusative (cf. above, pp. 341, ft. nt. 2, 380, ft. nt. 3). The difficult Ibanag oblique sa (3. sg.) seems to

have a nominative case sign (cf. above, p. 381).

List of principal Elements used in the Formation of the Pronouns.

a—1) lig., cf. p. 338.
2) elem. of ligs. ay, ya, cf. p. 340.
3) final elem. in dems., cf. p. 357.
4) root part. of def. arts. ang, an, ef. p. 341.
5) prefix in dems., cf. p. 354, and dem. stems like ari, cf. p. 354 f.
6) elem. of an, and perhaps of ad, ag.
7) perhaps dem. root part., cf. p. 352, and root part of e.

ad-elem. of dem. stem adto, cf. p. 354f.

ag-elem. of dem. stem agto, cf. p. 354 f.

¹ For elements of inc. art. not included here, cf. p. 348.

ak,-root part., 1. sg., cf. p. 367.

ak,-sign of indef. object in Ceb., cf. p. 345.

al-cf. ar.

am-elem. of prons. 1. exc. pl., cf. p. 369.

an,—prefixed elem. in Ceb. inter. k-an-sa, cf. p. 361, and in the stem anda, 3. pl., cf. p. 382.

an,-prefixed elem. in nom. pl. of Iban. dems., cf. p. 356 f.

an,-inter. root part., cf. p. 362.

an,-probably suffix in Ceb. inters. ending in lan, cf. p. 363.

an,-suffix of prons. 1. pers., cf. p. 368.

ar—elem. of inters. Tag: al-in, Bik. ar-in, and perhaps of Ceb. forms ending in lan, cf. p. 363.

asi-stem of indiv. inter. in Iban., cf. p. 363.

at-elem. of prons. 1. inc. pl., cf. p. 371.

au-dem. root part., cf. p. 353.

ay, ai—1) lig., cf. p. 338. 2) final elem. of dems., cf. p. 357. bbad—final elem. of Bag. numeral 'one,' cf. p. 345.

chi-Nab. form of di.

d.—obl. case sign in Tag. dems., cf. p. 354; in prons. 1, pers., cf. p. 371; and in Bat. du, cf. p. 344: [cf. also d(i)].

d,-nom. case sign in dems., cf. p. 354.

da, ra, la—1) root part., 3. pl., cf. p. 381. 2) elem. of pl. def.
art. in Pang., cf. p. 342. 3) root part. of inc. art. in Ilok. and Iban., elem. of inc. art. in Pang., cf. p. 348. 4) plural elem. of dems. in Pamp., Pang., and Iban., cf. p. 354. 5) elem. of prefixes dag and day. 6) prefix of gen. pl. of Pang. dems., cf. p. 356. 7) prefix in Ilok. prons., 1. pl., du., 2. pl., cf. pp. 372, 378. 8) elem. of pers. inter. in Pang., Iban., and Bag., cf. pp. 360, 361, 362, and of indiv. inter. in Iban., cf. p. 363. 9) perhaps elem. of dday.—Pampangan da gen. of pron. 1. sg. is not identical with this da, but a modification of ta₂.

dday-final elem. of Iban. numeral 'one,' cf. p. 345.

dag-prefix of pl. in Ilok. def. art. and dems., cf. pp. 342, 354.

day-prefix of dems. sg. in Ilok., cf. p. 356.

de,—gen. of pron. 1. exc. pl. in Bag., cf. p. 369.—Pamp. de gen. of pron. 3. pl. is not identical with this de, though both are probably modifications of da.

de,-prefix of Pamp. inter. pl. de-no, cf. p. 360.

di,—1) obl. of def. art. [Nab. chi], cf. p. 343, and of pers. art., cf. p. 347. 2) obl. case sign in Tag. dems., cf. p. 353. 3) elem. of indiv. inter. in Pang., Ilok., Nab., and Sulu, cf. p. 364. 4) obl. case sign in Batan prons. 1. pers., cf. p. 371.—[cf. also d(i)].

di,-dem. root part., cf. p. 352.

di₂—1) root part. of pl. of def. art. in Pamp., cf. p. 342.
2) root part. of inc. art. in Pamp., and elem. of inc. art. in Pang., cf. p. 348.
3) prefix of pers. inter. pl. in Pamp., cf. p. 360.—perhaps a modification of da.

di,—nom. case sign in Ceb. and Har. dems., cf. p. 354 (=di_i).
d(i)—obl. case sign, may be d, or di_i, in prons. 2. and 3. pers., cf. pp. 377, 383.

din-in Bag., root part., 3. sg., and final elem. of neut. inter., ef. pp. 381, 362.

ding-in Pamp., stem of pl. of def. art., and elem. of pl. of indiv. inter., cf. pp. 342, 361.

e-nom. of def. art. in Nab., cf. p. 341.—e in Sulu ekau is identical with i, cf. p. 377.

ed—in Pang. only: 1) obl. of def. and pers. arts., cf. pp. 343, 346 f. 2) obl. case sign of all other pronouns, cf. pp. 347, 356, 362, 373, 379, 386.

en,-1) dem. root part., cf. p. 353. 2) probably elem. of Sulu inter. hadi-en, cf. p. 364.

en,-cf. uen.

et-obl. and gen. of def. art. in Har., cf. pp. 342, 343.

g-pluralizing infix in Ilok. dems, cf. pp. 354, 356.

go-final elem. of Bag. dems., cf. p. 352.

ha—1) obl. of def. art. in Sulu, cf. p. 343. 2) initial elem. of indiv. inters. in Bis. and Sulu, cf. p. 364.

hi—in Sulu only, pers. art. and prefix of pers. inter., cf. pp. 346, 364.

i,—1) lig., cf. p. 338. 2) elem. of ligs. ay, ya, cf. p. 340. 3) final elem. in Pang. def. art., cf. p. 342, and perhaps in the forms e, ne of the def. and pers. art. in Nab. (cf. pp. 341, 343); in the forms of the numeral 'one' in Iban.; cf. p. 345; in kay, obl. of pers. art. in Tag. and Bis., in the inc. art. in Hil., cf. p. 348; in the dems., cf. p. 357; in the following inters., viz., Bik. and Samaro-Leytean pers. inter., cf. pp. 361, 364, Nab. sepa-i, twa-i, ngaramto-i; followed by n in the case sign ken, and perhaps in Pang. nen (cf. p. 346). 4) root part. in def. arts. i, in, ing, cf.

p. 341; and pers. art. i and perhaps hi, cf. p. 346. 5) articular prefix or nom. case sign in Ilok. def. art., cf. p. 342; in the forms of the numeral 'one,' cf. p. 345; in the dems., cf. p. 353; in the Bik. inter. stem isay, cf. p. 361, in Iban. indiv. inter., cf. p. 363, and in Nab. inter. sepa(y) if it is equivalent to *sa-i-pa(y), cf. p. 362; in the pers. prons. of all persons, cf. pp. 371, 372, 376, 377 f., 383, 384.—The root part. ya, ia, 3. sg. is perhaps a combination of a with this prefix. 6) elem. of in,

i - prepositional prefix or obl. and gen. case sign in Ilok. def. art. and dems., cf. pp. 344, 353 f., 356; and in prons. 2. and

3. pers., cf. pp. 377, 378, 383, 385: elem. of in,

ia-cf. ya.

id-elem. of dem. stem idto, cf. p. 354 f.

in,—prefix in inters., Ceb. k-in-sa, Pamp. insa (in ing), cf. p. 361, and in the stem inda, 3. pl., cf. p. 382.

in,-prefix in stems inyo, indo, 2. pl., cf. pp. 376, 377.

in,—suffix of gen. and obl. forms, prons. 1. pers. (=on, un, and en,), cf. p. 372.

in,-suffix of inters., cf. p. 363 .- not identical with in,.

k,—nom. case sign in Ceb. dems. and pers. inter., cf. pp. 354, 361. k,—obl. case sign in inc. art., cf. p. 348; in Pamp. king, cf.

p. 343 f.; in Bik. ki, cf. p. 346; in Har. k-agto, cf. p. 355; and in Pamp. k-ako, cf. p. 373.

ka,-root part., 2. sg., cf. p. 375.

ka,—1) obl. and gen. of def. art. in Bag. 2) obl. and gen. case sign in def. art., cf. pp. 342-344; in pers. art., cf. p. 346; in the inc. art., cf. p. 347 f.; in dems., cf. p. 353; in the inters. in Tag., Hil., and Pamp., cf. p. 360, and probably in Sam.-Ley. kanay, cf. p. 364; in the prons. of all three persons, cf. pp. 371, 376 f., 383. 3) elem. of ka(n), kan, kay, ken, kana, kani, kare and takka.—The ka of the inc. art. in Ceb. does not belong here, cf. k, and ka.

ka,-elem. of the Mag. case signs salka, seka, leka, cf. p. 384,

and of sika.

ka,—in Ceb., obl. of inc. art., and in Bik., obl. case sign of pl. of pers. inter., cf. pp. 348, 361.

kan-1) obl. and gen. of the def. art., cf. p. 343 (bis); of pers. art., cf. p. 346. 2) obl. and gen. case sign in pers. prons. in

Har., Pamp., Sulu, and Bagobo, ef. pp. 371, 377, 383.
3) in Nab. obl. sikan, cf. p. 346.

ka(n)—obl. and gen. case sign, may be ka or kan, in the pers. prons. of all three persons, cf. pp. 371, 376 f., 383.

kana-in Mag., gen. and obl. of def. art., and gen. case sign in prons. 3. sg., cf. pp. 343, 344, 383.

kani—1) gen. and obl. of pers. art. in Mag., cf. p. 346. 2) obl. case sign in Ilok. kaniak, cf. p. 373. 3) elem. of case sign kania in Ilok. prons. 3. pers., cf. p. 384.

kare-obl. case sign in Pamp. kareno, karela, cf. pp. 360, 386.

kay—1) obl. of pers. art. cf. p. 346. 2) obl. and gen. case sign in Hil. pers. inter., cf. p. 360.

ke,-obl. case sign in Pamp. inter. keno, cf. p. 360.

ke,—nom. pron. 1. exc. pl. in Pamp., and Bag., cf. p. 369.
—Pamp. ke, 1. sg. does not belong here, being a modification of ko, cf. p. 387.

ken-in Ilok., obl. of pers. art., cf. p. 346, and obl. case sign of prons. 2. and 3. sg., cf. pp. 379, 384.

key, xey-elem.-of numeral 'one' in Pang. and Nab. respectively, cf. p. 345.

ki—in Bik., obl. of pers. art., cf. p. 346, and obl. case sign in pers. inter., cf. p. 361.—probably a modification of ka,; not identical with Pang. ki, 2. pl., which seems to be a modification of ka, cf. p. 375.

king—in Pamp., obl. of def. art. and obl. case sign of indiv. inter., cf. pp. 343 f., 361.

ko—root part., 1. sg., cf. p. 368.—ko, 2. pl. does not belong here, being probably a modification of ka, cf. p. 375.

kua—a noun meaning 'possession' used in Iban. in the obl. case sign takkua, and in Ilok. in the obl. of the prons. 3. sg. and pl., cf. p. 384.

la-root part., 3. pl., ef. da.

le, l—gen. case signs in Mag. pers. prons., cf. pp. 372, 373, 378; elem. of Mag. case sign leka, cf. p. 384, and of sale, sal.

ma-dem. root part., cf. p. 353.

mey-prefix of Ilok. numeral 'one,' cf. p. 345.

mi-root part., 1. exc. pl., cf. p. 369.

mo-root part., 2. sg., cf. p. 376.

·n,-1) lig., cf. p. 338. 2) final elem. in def. art., cf. p. 341 ff.; in pers. art., cf. p. 346; in the dems., cf. p. 357; perhaps

in prons. 3. pl. in Mag. and Bag., cf. p. 382 (bis). 3) between prefix and root part. in the gen. of Pang. dems., cf. p. 356; in indiv. inters. in Pang. and Nab., cf. p. 364; in the elems. an_1 , in_1 , un_2 . 4) in case signs kan_1 , ken_2 .

- n_s—gen. case sign in inc. art., cf. p. 348; in dems., cf. pp. 353, 354; in Iban. indiv. inter., cf. p. 363; in prons. 1. and 3. pers., cf. pp. 371, 372, 383, 385; and in all probability in Bat. nu.
- na,—1) lig., cf. p. 338. 2) gen. of def. art., cf. p. 342. 3) root elem. of gen. forms nan, nang, ka-nan, and perhaps of ne (na+i) and nen (na+i+n) of def. and pers. arts., cf. pp. 343, 346; and of nay in Hil. inc. art., cf. p. 348, 4) final elem. of Tag. inc. art., cf. p. 347. 5) dem. root part., cf. p. 353, and root part., 3. sg., cf. p. 381. 6) gen. case sign of Pang. dems., cf. p. 356, and of Mag. prons., 1. and 3. pers., cf. pp. 373, 385. 7) final elem. of inter. antuna, cf. p. 362. 8) in kana.

na,—in Bik. and Ceb, gen. and obl. of inc. art. and gen. case sign of pl. of pers. inter., cf. pp. 348, 361; and final elem. of inc. art., cf. p. 348.

ne—1) gen. of def. and pers. arts in Nab., cf. pp. 343, 346. 2) gen. of pron. 3 sg. in Pamp., cf. p. 381. 3) elem. of Pang. gen. of pers. art. nen, cf. p. 346.

neng-gen. case sign of pron. 2. sg. in Mag., cf. p. 378.

ni,—1) gen. of pers. art.; cf. p. 346.
2) gen. case sign in inc. art., cf. p. 347 f.; in dems., cf. pp. 353, 354; in the pers. inter. in Tag., Sam.-Ley., Bik., Pamp., and Iban., cf. pp. 360, 361; in prons. 1. and 2. pers., cf. pp. 371, 372, 373, 377, 378.
3) obl. case sign in Ceb. dems., cf. p. 353, and in Iban. prons. 1. and 2. pers.
4) root element of gen. forms nin, ning of def. art., cf. p. 343.
5) final elem. in Hil. inc. art., cf. p. 348.
6) in kani.

ni,—dem. root part., cf. p. 352, and perhaps root part. of Mag. nin, cf. p. 380.

ni,-elem. of Iban. inters.=no,, cf. pp. 360, 362.

n(i)—gen. case sign, may be n, or ni,, in prons. 2. and 3. pers., cf. pp. 377, 378, 383, 385.

ning-in Pamp., gen. of def. art. and gen. case sign of indiv. inter., cf. pp. 340, 361.

no,-inter. root part., ef. p. 359 f.

no,—root part., 2. pers., cf. p. 376.—Pamp. gen. no, 3. sg., does not belong here, being a modification of na, cf. p. 387.

nu-in nu, ka-nu of def. art. in Bat. and Mag., cf. p. 342 ff. ng-1) lig., cf. p. 338. 2) final elem. in forms of def. art., cf.

p. 341 ff.; in case signs identical with def. art. in Pamp. indiv. inter., cf. p. 361. 3) in Mag. ne-ng-ka, cf. p. 377.

nga-lig., cf. p. 338.

on, un—suffix of gen. and obl. forms, prons. 1 pers. (=in, and en,), cf. pp. 372, 373.

pa,-obl. of def. art. in Sulu, cf. p. 343.

pa, -perhaps inter. root part. in Pang. and Nab. pers. inter., cf. p. 362.

ra-root part., 3. pl., cf. da.

ri-= di intervocalic.

ro-final elem. of numeral 'one' in Bik., cf. p. 345.

s₁—1) obl. case sign in the articular forms sin, sun, cf. pp. 343, 344, 346; in the signs of indef. obj. sin, sing, cf. p. 345; in the dems., cf. pp. 353, 354. 2) gen. and obl. case sign in prons. 1. and 2. pers. in Bik., cf. pp. 371, 372, 377, 378.

s,-nom. case sign in Ceb. sini, cf. p. 354 (=s,).

s,—nom. case sign in inc. art. sa in Ceb, Bik., and sanday in Hil., cf. p. 348; in pers. prons. 3. pl., Bat. sa (?), Hil. and Har. sanda, Bik. sinda, cf. pp. 381, 383, 384; and in prons.

1. sg., cf. p. 371.

sa,—1) obl. and gen. cf def. art., cf. pp. 342, 343. 2) root elem. of forms san, sang of def. art., cf. p. 343. 3) obl. case sign in dems., cf. p. 354; in pers. inter. in Tag., Ceb., and Sam.-Ley., cf. p. 358; in pronouns of all three persons, cf. pp. 371, 373, 376 f., 378 f., 383, 385 f. 4) elem. of Mag. case sign sale, sal.

sa₂—1) root elem. in Pang. def. art., nom. sg. say. 2) nom.
case sign in pl. of def. art., and in incl. art. in Pang., cf. pp. 342, 348; in dems. in Pang. and Nab., cf. pp. 356, 357;

and perhaps in the Nab. pers. inter., cf. p. 362.

sa,-root part. of numeral 'one,' cf. p. 345.

sa,-inter. root part., cf. p. 361.

sa,—1) nom. of inc. art. in Ceb. and Bik., and of pron. 3. pl. in Bat., cf. pp. 348, 381. 2) in Bik., nom. case sign of inc. art. and of pl. pers. inter., cf. pp. 348, 361. 3) final elem. of inc. art., cf. p. 348. sa,—nom. case sign in Ceb. sa-ini, cf. p. 354 (= $s\alpha_1$).

sa,-obl. of pron. 3. sg. in Iban., cf. p. 381.

sale, sal-case sign in Mag. pers. prons., cf. pp. 371 f., 377, 383.

san-in Sam.-Ley. only; 1) gen. of def. art. 2) obl. case sign in pers. inter. Cf. pp. 343, 364.

sang—in Hil. only; 1) gen. of def. art. 2) obl. case signs in prons. 3. sg. and pl. Cf. pp. 343, 385.

se,-case sign in Mag. pers. prons., cf. references under sale.

se,-initial elem. of pers. inter. in Nab., cf. p. 362.

si—1) nom. of pers. art., cf. p. 346. 2) nom. of def. art. and elem. of gen. nin-si in Bik., cf. pp. 341, 343. 3) nom. case sign in inc. art., cf. p. 348; in pers. inter. in Tag., Hil., Sam.-Ley., Bik., Pang., Ilok., Iban., and Sulu, cf. pp. 360, 361, 362, 364; in prons. of all three persons, cf. pp. 371, 372, 377, 378, 383, 384 f. 4) initial elem. of sikan, obl. of pers. art. in Nab., cf. p. 346. 5) final elem. in Hil. inc. art., cf. p. 348. 6) elem. of case sign sika, sik.

sin-1) gen. of def. art. in Sulu, cf. p. 343. 2) sign of indef. object, and obl. case sign of pers. inter. in Sam.-Ley., cf.

pp. 345, 364.

sika, sik-nom. case sign in Pang. and Nab. prons. 1. and 3.

pers., cf. pp. 371, 372, 383, 384.

so, su—1) nom. of def. art., cf. p. 341. 2) in form tu in Iban., as sign of indef. obj., cf. p. 345. 3) root part., 3. sg. in Ilok., cf. p. 381. 4) initial elem. of Nab. dems. suta, sutan, cf. p. 357. 5) nom. case sign in Pang. dems., cf. p. 356.

t—in Iban. only; equivalent to s,, cf. p. 333: obl. case sign in

Iban, dems. and indiv. inter., cf. pp. 354, 363.

ta,—dem. root part., cf. p. 353, and elem. of Har. tana, cf. p. 381.

ta,-root part., 1. sg. pl., and du., cf. pp. 368, 369 ff.

ta,—in Iban. only; equivalent to sa, cf. p. 333. 1) obl. of def. and pers. arts., cf. pp. 343, 347. 2) elem. of obl. case signs takka, takkua.

ta,-gen. and obl. of def. art. in Bag., cf. p. 343; probably not

identical with ta ..

takka—in Iban. only; obl. case sign in pl. of dems., cf. pp. 354, 356 f.

takkua—in Iban only; 1) obl. of pers. art., cf. p. 347. 2) obl. case sign in pers. and inc. arts., cf. pp. 347, 348; in pl. of dems., cf. p. 356 f.; and in pers. inter., cf. p. 361.

ti-root part of def. art. in Ilok., cf. p. 341, and of Pamp. dem. iti, cf. p. 353 .- Pang. ti, gen. 1. inc. pl., does not belong here, being probably a modification of ta,, cf. p. 387.

to-1) dem. root part., cf. p. 352. 2) root part., 3. sg., in Pang. and Nab., cf. p. 381. 3) prefix of gen. sg. in Pang. dems., cf. p. 356. 4) elem. of inters. anto, antuna, cf. p. 362:

tu-sign of indef. obj. in Iban. = so, su, cf. p. 345.

u-1) root part. of def. art. in Bat. and perhaps in Nab. sun, cf. pp. 341, 342, 344. 2) articular elem. in Bis. numeral usa, cf. p. 345; in the dem. stems uri, ura, cf. p. 354; and '. perhaps in the Pang. inter. stem opa, cf. p. 362, and the Sulu inter. uno, cf. p. 361. 3) elem. of un,.

uen-suffix of gen. and obl. forms, prons. 1. pers. (=in, and

. on, un), cf. p. 369.

un,-articular elem. in Ceb. inter. unsa, cf. p. 361. un,-cf. on, un:

y-cf. i ..

ya,-1) lig. in Pang., cf. p. 338. 2) nom. of def. art. in Har., cf. p. 341. 3) dem. root part., cf. p. 352 f. 4) root part., 3. sg., cf. p. 380 f. 4) root elem. of Bag. def. art. yan, cf. p. 341, and in Iban. dem. suffix ye, cf. p. 352, 357. 5) final elem. of Ilok. ania, cf. p. 363.

ya,-suffix of prons. 1. pers. in Bik., cf. pp. 368, 369, 371.

yo-root part., 2. pers., cf. p. 376.





Notes on some Palmyrene Tesserae.—By Hans H. Spoer, Ph.D., Jerusalem, Syria.

For the opportunity to describe Nos. 1 and 2 I am indebted to Mr. Herbert Clark of Jerusalem. The remainder are in my own possession.

I. This tessera is a quadrangular oblong.

Obverse. Near the upper margin the inscription

בלתי

A well-known name. Below it is a sun in splendor, surrounded by circles and upturned crescents.

Reverse. The inscription runs the long way:

ירחי כלבא

Yarhai. Kalbā.

ירחי is a name of frequent occurrence. כלכא occurs here, so far as I can discover, for the first time in a Palmyrene inscription, although known as a Syriac name, בֹלבי, and as Hebrew, כֹלָבי Num. 13°) and Nabatean (Eut. 213°).

II. This tessera is circular.

Obverse:

ית בלת

The name יתבלת' should perhaps be read 'תבלת', for there seem to be traces of a yod. This name, as I believe, occurs here for the first time. For 'רהי' see No. 1.

Reverse. This shows the portico of a Greek temple. On either side is a palm-branch. The door is double, each leaf having two panels, the upper trellised, the lower decorated with an outline like a Latin M. Some traces of characters in the gable may be read as

my brother

In this case the tessera would commemorate the death of the brother of Yathbelit. However, the reading may also be

יאתי

III. This tessera is sexangular.

Obverse. A figure, reclining upon a funerary couch, dressed in tunic and mantle, the head covered with the modius. The bare right arm is stretched out, to receive a cup offered by a boy, who in the other hand (left) bears a pitcher. Above, a medallion, the bust of a man, in a beaded frame. (Cf. with tessera described by the author in this Journal, xxvi, p. 114.) The inscription is hardly legible:

זביור * * *

Reverse:

word

Three busts in a row, a fourth above, in the middle flanked on either side by a sun in splendor. Between the busts are small bosses.

IV. This tessera is a rectangular oblong, one side only having been used, the reverse being rough and shapeless.

Obverse. Between a row of bosses, above and below, the

בלתי Belti

A name which occurs also in I. To the left a rayed star.

Reverse. None.

V. Small, square and of a terra cotta color.

Obverse. A reclining figure on a funerary couch. Below:

יריעבל Yedī'bēl

A name which is known; cf. Lidzbarski, Ephemeris I, p. 203, 206.

Reverse. A winged female genius with a trailing garment holding a chaplet in her extended left hand. On the left margin, מרי, known as a Nabatean proper name.

VI. Square. Figures as described by me in this Journal,

xxvi, p. 115, Ill. 5.

Obverse.

חיון Haiwān

The form of the last letter is unusual (but see Lidzbarski, Schrifttafel II, Rom. 1). The name is known as Nabatean n.pr.m., خَدْنُ . The third letter is evidently not ٦, so that we have not here the well known name

Reverse. Below the couch:

יעבלת

The last letter may possibly be X.

Three letters, barely legible, occur near the left margin:

(ב)ני

VII. A rectangular oblong inscribed on both sides. There are no figures.

Obverse. Much worn:

אגן פל שמש

The third letter is partly erased. Unless the deity be referred to (Vog. No. 138), the name Šemš does not elsewhere occur alone, but only as compounded with other names.

Reverse.

ב [ני] בזכול

Beni Bezbol

This is one of the many names compounded with but I have not elsewhere met with this combination.

VIII. Of the form of an olive.

Obverse. In the center a bust, perhaps of a deity; below it a large boss, and above an ill-preserved inscription which I read

> * * * בלצדק Bèl-Sedeq

A name which occurs for the first time. Cf. the Hebrew מלכי ערק, Gen. 1418.

Reverse. The field is occupied by a horse, saddled, the saddle supporting a rod crowned by a five-pointed star. Before the horse is a boss, and beneath, a curious symbol which may be described as a crutch-head enclosed in an arch. May this be the fragment of the Swastika, which occurs not unfrequently in association with Apollo? The star symbolises Ištar=Venus. The horse is sacred to the sun-god Šemš, 2 Kgs. 13". That this belief was held by the inhabitants of Palmyra seems to be borne out by another tessera in my possession, which bears on the one side the sun-god and upon the other a horsed chariot with its driver. Unfortunately the head of the man is worn away, and the tessera somewhat mutilated.

¹ Cf. Thomas Wilson: The Swastika, p. 852.

Three Objects in the Collection of Mr. Herbert Clark, of Jerusalem.—By George A. Barton, Professor in Bryn Mawr College.

No. 1.

This little weight, in bronze, in the form of a turtle, came, Mr. Clark said, from Sebastiych. The drawing is about its actual size. It is inscribed with old Hebrew letters: Did, evidently standing here for the "fifth" of a shekel. The weight is 2½ grams, or 58 grains. At this rate the shekel of which it was a fraction consisted of 290 grains. A series of half-shekel weights found at Tell Zakariyeh weighed 157.5 gr., 146.7 gr. respectively (Bliss and Macalister, Excavations in Palestine 1898–1900,



146 ff., and Clermont-Ganneau, Recueil d'arch. orient., 25 ff.), and one in my possession weighs 153.5 gr. (cf. JAOS. xxiv, 386 ff.). The limits of variation of the Hebrew shekel have never been determined, but it is evident that there was a shekel which approximated 300 grains. Mr. Clark's turtle weight is one-fifth of that. The turtle form of this weight is, so far as I know, unique.

No. 2.

This object, cut out of a blackish stone, bears on one side a face; on the other, pictures of two birds accompanied by cer-







tain marks. The face, which the drawings exhibit in profile as well as in full view, has a physiognomy which resembles the faces on two Hittite monuments published by Messerschmidt, Corpus Inscriptionum Hetiticarum, II, Tafel xxxiv, A and B. The resemblance to the profile of A is particularly striking. One of the bird figures resembles a figure on Tafel xlvi of the Nachtrag of Messerschmidt's work. I am of the opinion, therefore, that the object may be Hittite, and put forth the suggestion in hope that some one who has given more attention to the decipherment of Hittite may be able to throw further light on it. The object may have been used either as a weight or a seal.

No. 3.

This little stone duck, found at Sebastiyeh, was perhaps a weight, though this is by no means certain. It weighs 39 grains. If it were intended for a weight, it was probably an eighth of a



shekel, since eight times its weight would be 312 grs. Since the shekel varied so much, however, it may have been the seventh of a shekel, since 273 grs. is almost equal to 277.8 grs.—the smallest of the shekels found by Bliss at Tell Zakariyeh.

Studies of Sanskrit Words.—By Edwin W. Fay, Professor in the University of Texas, Austin, Texas.

T. Arváñe-

In his German etymological dictionary (English translation, s.v. Erde) Kluge, with some hesitation, connects Lat. arvum 'field, ploughed land' with Gr. ξραζε 'earthwards.' In his English Etymology, s.v. earth, all this hesitation disappears, in view, I take it, of ON. jorvi 'ground,' not cited in the former work among the cognates. It is also to be noted that Vergil (Aen. 12,681) uses arvis as a virtual rendering of Gr. χαμᾶζε 'to the ground.'

There is a very obvious difficulty in the comparison of arvum with ἔραζε, viz., the vocalism. This difficulty may be surmounted, to the best of my knowledge, in but one way, by assuming a base er- 'arare,' to which the European base ar-(from or-) would belong. This solution I have offered in my essay entitled A Semantic Study of the Indo-Iranian Nasal Verbs (Am. Jr. Phil., 26,389). There is, it must be admitted, not very much to justify a base er-. Skr. ara 'awl': Gr. apis 'auger' is dubious because of OHG. ala. Latin ora 'edge, point,' is also ambiguous, and so is er 'stachel-schwein,' which may well be for 'her', if Hesychian χήρ is genuine Greek, with a genuine x. Not very conclusive is Skr. írinam (? from er-) "brüchiges, unfruchtbares land." A vague connection with the root might be made out for Gr. "pioos 'kid' (if = "pricket"): Lat. aries 'ram' (cf. Umbr. erietu): Lith. éras (with ē) 'lamb.' But in any case, the vowel relations of arvum and space are no harder to admit than those of Lat. aries: Umbr. erietu.

As a means of testing the correlation of arvum with <code>ipale</code> I have made a study of the Sanskrit word arvane-, as it appears in the Rig-Veda, and I attach some importance to the isolation of its formation, with the adverbial suffix -ane-, as compared with the isolated Greek word <code>ipale</code>. I conclude from the data that follow that arvane- and the adverb arvak do mean "earthward(s)."

1. The Petersburg Lexica define our word as follows: a) herwaerts kommend, hergekehrt, zugekehrt, entgegen-kommend: b) diesseitig (only in grammatical and lexicographical sources, save the adverb arvák, which has literary attestation): c) unterhalb befindlich, nach unten gerichtet: d) in der nähe von (advb. only). The earliest citations for the sense c) are from AV. and SB., and consist of passages in which arváñcis contrasted with ūrdhvás. This contrast I would, however, see in RV. vii. 78. 1bc (B₂)¹:

ūrdhvā asyā aūjāyo ví śrayante, úso arvācā brhatā ráthena—vāmām asmābhyam vaksi, "On high her rays are spreading abroad, <Now> Usas earthward in thy mighty car wealth to us fetch."

This hymn may belong to a late middle period of RV. tradition as Arnold believes (see the table in PAOS. xviii. 353, and KZ. xxxiv. 341), but the chronology of the Vedic hymns can hardly tell against a word proved to be proethnic; and a hymn of the earliest period, if liable to popular rather than hieratic use, may have retained in all its working-over very early linguistic material (cf. Bloomfield, Proceedings, xxi. 41 ff. pace Arnold, ibid. xxii. 309 ff.).

 Contexts are not wanting in RV. where a special sense seems warranted for arvance. Thus in i. 92. 16 (A),

> -vartír asmád' á . . . arvág rátham . ní yachatam "unto our house-earthward-your chariot bring",

arvåg might well be taken as a mere adverbial repetition of vartís, and passages are still to be pointed out in which arvåk seems to mean "ad nostrum fundum." In some of these contexts previous translators have recognized the sense I would give to arvånc-, and Säyana glosses arvåk in v. 45. 10 (see 5 below) by avänmukhāh 'face-downwards.'

² This takes asmád as a poss. adj. = 'nostrum', identical with the compounding stem asmad.

After each hymn I put Arnold's indication of its age: A, archaic: B₁, early middle period: B₂, late middle period: C₁, early late period: C₂, later late period.

viii. 14. 8 (B,):

úd gắ ājad áñgirobhya āvís kṛṇván gúhā satíh arváñcam nunude valám,

"Showing the hidden, he drove forth the cows for the Angirases,

And Vala he cast headlong down" (so Griffith).

That arvancam nunude means 'struck to the ground' = ('to his feet,' cf. RV. i. 32. 8, B₃) seems to me most probable. Note the combination of the root nud with urdhvam 'upwards' in i. 85. 10 (B₂); i. 88. 4 (A).

Wilson, cited by Griffith, paraphrased x. 71. 9a (C,),

imé yé nárváň ná parás' cáranti,

- by "Those who do not walk (with the Brahmans) in this lower world, nor (with the gods) in the upper world."
- In the following passages arvance is combined with the root sad 'to sit.'
 - iii. 4. 8cd (B₂): sárasvatí sárasvatébhir árvák
 . . . barhír édám sadantu,
 - "May Sarasvati and her confluent rivers earthward (come) . . . and sit down upon this grass."

x. 15. 4a (C,): bárhisadah pitara üty àrvág,

- "Grass-sitting Manes come earthward to our aid (or with aid)."
- In the following the contrast of earth and heaven is clear.
 i. 45.10ab (A): arvāncam dāivyam jánam ágne yákṣva,

"Fetch-by-sacrifice to earth the celestial kind, O Agni."

v. 83. 6cd (C₁) arváñ eténa stanayitnúnéhy apó nisiñcánn ásurah pitá nah.

"Earthward in this thunder come, dripping water, god our father."

vi. 19. 9cd (B₄): á viśváto abhí sám etv arváñ índra dyumnám svàrvad dhehy asmé,

"From every side let him come earthward: Indra, bestow upon us heavenly glory."

¹ On parás, see 6 below.

vii. 83. 3 (B₂): sám bhúmyā ántā dhvasirā adṛkṣata índrāvaruṇā diví ghóṣa ấruhat ásthur jánānām úpa mấm árātayo arvấg ávasā havanaśrutā gatam.

"The earth-ends were seen dust-bewhirled; Indra-Varuna, my cry mounted to heaven: My enemies among the peoples encompassed me: Earthward with help, hearing my cry, ye came."

x. 83. 6a-c (C,): úpa méhy arváñ—mányo vajrinn-"Come earthward to me, lightning wielder, Manyu."

5. In the large majority of instances arvance is of vague significance. The gods are called upon to come and bless the worshipper. Obviously "come hither" makes a satisfying rendering for arvan yahi, but "come down, come earthward" were equally satisfying. Arguing from the antiquity of the agricultural rites of worship, attested for instance at Rome in the ritual of the Fratres Arvales, and mindful of the etymological sense of 'ploughland' found in arvum, one might feel disposed to make something of

iv. 57. 6ab (C1): arvácī subhage bhava síte vándāmahe tvā,

"Earthward, gracious one, turn thou, Furrow, we greet thee."

Still, as so many other deities are summoned earthward, we can hardly lay much weight on the summoning of the "Furrow" earthward.

The following passages, though vague, have seemed, for one reason or another, worthy of consideration.

ii. 37. 5ab (B_z) : arváñcam adyá yayyàm nrváhaṇam rátham yuñjāthām ihá vām vimócanam.

"To come earthward to-day your man-bearing Car hitch up; here is your unhitching."

Here arvancam is not attributive, but predicative, a sort of factitive to yunjāthām; unless construed closely with yayyam.

¹ Chiefly because they show arvance in combination, not directly with a verb of motion, but with one equal, by a sort of zeugma, to a verb of motion.

iv. 4. 8a (B,): árcāmi te sumatím ghósy arvák,

"I sing thy grace; sound it <back> to earth."

v. 45. 10cd (B_i): udná ná návam anayanta dhírā asrnvatír ápo arvág¹ atisthan,

"Like a ship in water the wise launched him (the sun); The hearkening floods <of light descended> to earth and stood <there>.

vii. 18. 3c (Ba): arvácī te pathyà rāyá etu,

"Earthward (? ad fundum nostrum) come thy path of wealth, <Indra>.

vii. 28. 1b (A): arváñcas te hárayah santu yuktáh,

"Earthward be thy steeds yoked, <Indra>."

viii. 61 (50). 1 (A): ubháyam śrnávac ca na índro arvág idám vácah

satrácyā maghávā sómapītaye dhiyá sávistha á gamat.

"Let Indra hearken earthward to this our double song; <Moved> by our unanimous prayer, let Maghavan, the mighty, come hither to drink soma."

x. 89. 5d (B₂): nárvág índram pratimánani debhuh,

"Nor have any counterfeits decoyed Indra to earth."

x. 89. 16d (B,): tiró vísvaň árcato yāhy arván,

"Past all (other) praisers (?), come down to earth" (ad fundum nostrum: cf. vii. 18. 3, and paragraph 2, above).

x. 129. 6c (C2): arvág devá asyá visárjanena.

"The gods are later than this world's production"
(Griffith).

No translation of this passage is likely to win conviction, even from its proposer, but I venture on

"<There came > gods to earth at its creation."

 I have reserved two passages for separate treatment.
 i. 164. 19ab (C_i): yé arváñcas táň u párāca āhur yé párāñcas táň u arváca āhur,

Note the gloss of Sayana, mentioned above at the beginning of 2.

"The down <on the earth> they call the up <in the sky>:

The up <in the sky> they call the down <on the earth>."

In this stanza we have some astronomical or cosmogonic riddle, and a real solution I do not pretend to offer,' but it is probable that parañe- here repeats para- in stanzas 17 and 18, where para-connotes 'heavenly,' as in the same stanzas avara-, echoed in stanza 19 by arvañe-, connotes 'earthly.' This interpretation shows points of agreement with Wilson's paraphrase of x. 71. 9a (see in 2 above).

viii. 8. 23 (A): tríñi padány aśvínor āvíh sánti gúhā paráh

kaví rtásya pátmabhir arvág jīvébhyas pári,

"The three regions of the Asvins are revealed which were in hiding in-the-far-heaven;

The two seers of righteousness wing-their-way earthward unto the living."

The translation of paráh by "in-the-far-heaven" (= German "jenseits"), rather than by "before," seems to me beyond question; and this would seem to fasten the sense of "earthward" upon arvák.

After the above tests of the special applicability of the rendering "earthward," it seems not amiss to regard Skr. arváncas a cognate of Gr. ἔραζε, Lat. arvis (in Aeneid 12. 681).

Postscript.

The editors have asked me to add, for completeness' sake, a word on (1) arvācīná- (arvācīna-) and (2) arvāvát-. It is habitual to render (1)—construed like Lat. sublimis (Gildersleeve-Lodge's Gram. §325. 6)—by 'hitherward' (='to the worshipper, to me'), rather than by 'earthward,' and in all the usage of the word (fifteen cases) there is nothing, as Professor Hopkins observes, to prove the inadequacy of the usual rendering. The

¹ But we may note the Vergilian usage, Aen. 6. 481, of superi = 'qui in terra (supra terram) sunt,' for the usual superi = 'caelestes.'

² See Grassmann's Lexicon, s.vv. pára-, paramá-.

one difficult use is RV. vi. 25.3 (A, in Arnold's system of dates):

índra jāmáya utá yé 'jāmayo 'rvācīnāso vanúso yuyujré tvám eṣām vithurā śávānsi jahí vṛṣṇyāni kṛṇuhī párācaḥ,

as to which Grassmann remarks in his Lexicon that here alone arvācīná- is used of other than friendly approach. But there need be no question of approach at all, for we may well take jāmáyah and ájāmayah as adjectives and arvācīnásah as a substantive, in formation something like arvales, but in sense like vicini (finitumi) or Landsleute. The stanza does not lose in point thereby:

Indra, our kindred and non-kindred
Neighbours, that as enemies have united,—
Do thou in sunder their mightiness
Rive, their prowess; make them as strangers (=drive them afar).

In the study of arvāvát 'proximity,' the salient fact is that it is never used save as an antonym of parāvát 'distance;' but, after a consideration of all the examples in RV., I feel free to say that 'distance' is not the only signification of parāvát (and its kin). Grassmann's Lexicon s.vv. pára- paramá-, suggests 'heaven' as a rendering, and renders parástāt by 'oberhalb'; while both Grassmann and the larger Petersburg Lexicon interpret tisrás parāvátah by 'the three regions' (sky, air, and earth).

The connotation of 'sky' or 'air' ('aloft, on high') seems to me probable—what connotation is mathematically demonstrable?—for this group in the following instances. In iv. 26. 6 (B2) the falcon brings the soma-stalk from the parāvát (a-b), having taken it divó amūṣmād úttarāt 'from yon remote sky' (d), and pādas ab, without the interpretative clause d, recur in substance in x. 144. 4 (A). In iv. 21. 3 (A), Indra is besought to come from (1) diváh 'the sky,' (2) prthivyáh 'the land,' (3) samudrád . . púrīṣāt 'the sea-of-air,—i. e., from the three regions already mentioned: the stanza then adds (4) svàrṇarāt 'from the light-realm' and (5) parāváto vā sádanād rtásya; I interpret (4) as a substantial repetition of (1) and in (5) I take sádanād rtásya, which Sāyaṇa glosses by meghalokāt 'from the cloud-space,' as a synonymous (explanatory) apposition with

paravátah (which Ludwig renders by an adjective): thus (5) = 'from parāvát, the cloud-space.' In vi. 8. 4 (B.) Mātariśvan is said to have brought Agni down from (his hiding place in) parāvát, while in x. 187. 5 (B.) Agni's birthplace is given as pāré rájasah 'in the far-off of the air.' In v. 53. 8 the Asvins are summoned from the sky (diváh), the air (antárikṣāt), and from here (amat), and besought not to remain afar, paravatah 'from (=in) the paravát. Further, note viii. 12. 17 (A):

> yád vä sakra paräváti samudré ádhi mándase asmákam ít suté ranā sám índubhih,

"Whether, O Might, thou joyest in paravát in the sea <of air> [So Griffith supplies]

Delight in our pressing," etc.

In addition to these examples of the connotation 'sky' (air) for paravát (parám), we may note the contrasting pair ávaralower (and) paramá- ' highest,' especially in i. 164. 17 (C,) aváh párena pará ená 'varena'. In the light of such instances we may note that in the remote Celtic branch Ir. eross, which Stokes (Fick's Woert. II. p. 37) gives as a cognate of Skr. pará-, means 'height,' which would tend to vindicate the sense of 'high' for proethnic pero-.

If paravát means 'sky,' what of its antonym arvavát? Note

viii. 13. 15 (A):

vác chakrási parāváti vád arvāváti vrtrahan yád vā samudré ándhaso 'vitéd asi,

"Whether, O Might, thou art in paravát, or in arvavát, Vrtra- slayer,

Or else in the sea <of air>, thou art the protector of the Soma-stalk."

If we are right in taking samudré of the 'air,' then parāváti and arvāváti are the sky and earth, respectively.1

Observe, however, that the same words are repeated in viii. 97 (86). but filled out (after the invitation is given) in 5 as follows: yad vasi rocané diváh samudrásyā' dhi vişţápi, yát pārthive sádane vṛtrahantama yád antárikşa ā gắhi, " or if thou art in the sky's brightness, (or) on the sea's expanse, (or) if on earth's seat, (or) if in the interspace (air), do thou come hither," where 'sea' is distinct from air, and earth and sky are separately contrasted. ED.]

The semantic problem may be stated as follows: pará- meant (1) 'distant, far' but came, by a connotation which may have been proethnic, to mean (2) 'high, in the sky;' its antonym, arvanc-, meant (1) 'earthwards, towards (on) the ground' but developed, under the influence of pará (1), the meaning (2) 'near.'

The following illustration furnishes an approximate parallel. In Latin, domi (domum) and apud me (ad me) became, in a restricted sense, synonymous: 'at (to) my house.' These synonyms must have played a rôle in the upgrowth of domo doctus for a me doctus and of domi habeo aliquid for mihi est aliquid (cf. Lorenz ad Mil. Glor. 194), wherein the sense of 'domus' has nearly vanished. Similar is the generalisation of θύραζε 'out,' French fors / hors ('Lat. foris), from which the sense of 'door' has vanished, almost or wholly; and in French chez the sense of Lat. casa is all but gone; and we no longer think of a hill when we say down or adown. In general, on such prepositional words (direction adverbs) derived from nouns, consult Steinthal-Misteli, Abriss der Sprachwissenschaft, H, §4, p. 11 ff., noting especially Skr. pārśvam pārśve- 'adversus, ad, apud, prope.'

To say briefly what I think of the morphology of the group under discussion, I explain arvane as a terminal accusative *arvam (or plur. *arvan) + a deictic particle *-c(a), comparable with Gr. - &c; *-c(a) may be compared with Lat. -ce, and if it belongs to a different guttural series, the reason is that *arvamshas been attracted into a group with the other direction adverbs in -añc-. Alongside of arvacīná RV. exhibits a pretty large group of which pracina and praticina may be taken as representatives; arvavát is not to be explained as from arvanc, but merely as a counterpart of paravát.

Náhus-.

In RV. viii. 8. 23 (above), the words trini padani call for interpretation: what are the three padas? Sayana interpreted them as the three wheels of the Aśvins' chariot. Griffith says heaven, firmament, earth. But the hymn itself mentions three places from which the Asvins come, viz., náhus- (stz. 3), antáriksa-(3, 4), dyāús (4, 7). Dyāús we know and antáriksa- we seem to know, but what is nahus? I believe nahus to be 'the night.'

cf. Gr. νύχα · νύκτωρ, ἔννυχος. This interpretation yields good results when applied to

vii. 6. 5bcd (B₂): yó aryápatnīr uṣásaś cakāra sá nirūdhyā náhuṣo yahvó agnír vísás cakre balihṛtah sáhobhih, "Agni made the dawns noble-spoused, Driving off the nights, strong Agni Made the peoples tribute-bringers by his might."

· Here note the opposition of usasas and nahusas.

The base to which I ascribe Gr. vixa and náhus is s)nō(w)-gh-, alternating with s)nē(y)-gh-, and refer for my conception of the phonetic problems involved to Am. Jr. Phil. xxv. 371 ff. 379 ff. Stripped of "root-determinatives," the base in simpler form is s)nē(y)-/s)nō(w)-, and meant "to wrap," cf. Skr. snā-yati 'wraps,' Lat. nuit glossed by 'operuit, texit.' The word náhus belongs more closely with náhyati 'binds, wraps,' while Gr. vixa has the vowel color of nuit. Lat. niger 'black' and noegeum 'amiculi genus' attest the -ēy- diphthong. In all this it has been assumed that the night was the "binder" or "wrapper up" of the day (cf. Am. Jr. Phil. xxv. 386, note 2). The base for "snow," with a different final guttural, s)nē(y)-gwh-, has a cognate meaning, snow being conceivable as that which "wraps" (covers) the earth: cf. also Avest. vafra-: 'snow': the root vap- "to strew, weave."

3. vedhás, 'worshipper, pious; faithful, true.'

Uhlenbeck in his etymological lexicon groups together vidátham (with deaspiration) 'congregation, assembly,' vidháti 'worships, honors, dedicates (to a god),' and vedhás as defined above. For none of these words does he suggest further cognates, not even Avestan ones.

In view of the uncertainty in some few Sanskrit words, even the oldest (cf. Whitney, Verb Roots, sub the root vrh, and Wackernagel, Altind. Gram., § 161), between b and v, we may provisionally etymologize on our words as though they began with b. Then if we set down *bedháṣ- 'fidus, pius,' it becomes immediately apparent that *bedhás and fidus are etymological cognates, which differ only in their stems, the former being an -es-/-os- stem, the latter an -e-/-o- stem. However, it must be observed that in AV. xix. 3. 4 the stem védha is found in a

variant reading for védya, while in old Latin fidusta (from *fidos-to-) occurs, defined by Paulus as "a fide denominata, ea quae maximae fidei erant," a definition that would lead us to infer an Italic stem *fidos-: cf. also foedus and confoedusti.

The derivation of vedhás here suggested also accounts for vidátham, if etymologically defined by "federation." But vidháti presents a harder problem. It would not be very well defined by πείθει, but is fairly well matched by Germ. betet, beten and bitten, being, according to many, cognate with πείθει, fidit. But if Kern is right in referring these German words to Skr. bádhate 'premit' (cf. the citation of the footnote), then it might be necessary provisionally to separate vidháti from vedhás, and rather put it in a group with bádhate. I have tried, however, in Am. Jr. Phil. xxvi. 179 ff., to reunite πείθει and bádhate under the still remoter base bhē(y)-d(h) 'to split> < splice.' The semantic questions involved will now justify, I hope, a somewhat more detailed treatment, àpropos of the problem presented by vedhás for bedhás.

Beside the root bheidh 'to convince'—though this meaning is far from being primitive—stands a root bheid 'to split.' My thesis is that these roots were originally but one. The variation of aspirate and sonant at the end of roots with nasal infixes is far too common a phenomenon to be called in question, and the nasal inflexion of Lat. findit 'splits,' Skr. bhinátti, bhindánti' fulfils the conditions. Further, a nasal inflexion of bheidh seems attested by Alb. bint 'I persuade,' if they are right who connect it with Gr. πάθα."

.If thus on the formal side we may regard bheidh-/ bheid as one root, it remains to bring in accord the figurative meaning of bheidh 'to convince' and the direct sense 'to split' attested for

¹ E. g., Osthoff, cited in Uhlenbeck's got. Woert, s. v. bidjan; Brugmann, Grundr. i. § 589; Kluge, Etym. Woert. s.vv.; Skeat's Concise Etym. Dict., s.v. bid.

² It is entirely within the bounds of probability that bheid-'to split' has been affected by a group-association with the root of Lat. scindit, Skr. chinátti, chindánti.

³So, among others, Brugmann, in his Grundriss, and Prellwitz, Woert., s.v. πείθω. G. Meyer, Alban. Woert., s.v. bint, derives from bhendh, which is, in my opinion, itself but a derivative of bhe(y)dh-; see Am. Jr. Phil. xxvi. 181.

bheid. If we define Lat. fidus by 'open(ed), frank, sincere, loyal' we see how it may be cognate with findit 'splits, opens.' Similarly we may define the Homeric idiom πείθειν φρένας (θυμόν) τινί (τινος) by 'to open one's mind, convince,' comparing our own idiom "to open one's eyes;" fidit and πέποιθε may be rendered by 'opens (one's own heart) to (another), trusts.' The concrete sense of 'splits' is perhaps retained in Iliad 15, 26 πεπιθοῦσα θυέλλας, which may be defined by 'findens procellas.' The locution μισθε πείθειν 'to bribe' is very like the Sanskrit compound dāna-bhinnas 'bestochen, bribed.'

To Lat. foedus I assign a semantic development somewhat different from that exhibited by fidus 'true.' In Sanskrit the ptc. bhinnás means not only 'split, opened,' but is defined in the lexicon of Boehtlingk by "verbunden mit, hangend-, haftend an;" cf. vi-bhinnás "unzertrennlich verbünden mit," sambhinatti "zusammen bringt, in Berührung bringt, verbindet, vermengt, sich zu jemandem gesellt," bhiduras "in nahe Berührung tretend-sich vermengend, sich vermischend mit," bhittis "a woven mat" (: Lat. fides 'strings, a lyre'). With these words Lat. foedus 'truce, league, compact' accords in definition and they show that in Sanskrit derivatives, at least, the root bhid- has developed the connotation 'to join.' Similar is Eng. splices 'joins (split rope-ends)', whose derivation from splits is clear; also, in the language of weavers and rope-makers, Germ. scheren 'to cut, shear' has acquired the sense of 'spannen;' cf. also Eng. pieces 'to join <pieces> together.' The semantic opposition of "to split" and "to join" is only apparent, and comparable with the conflict found in the pair sticks 'stecht' and sticks 'steckt' (cf. also stitches 'stecht, stickt;' and see Kluge's Woert. s.v. stechen).

But in demonstrating a root bheid (h) 'to split,' with the connotation 'to join,' the last word has not yet been said for foedus 'truce.' Touching foedus, I think of some primitive form of contract by indenture, some breaking of a tessera hospitalis, in which the breaking of the token was the chief symbolic act of

¹ I share Uhlenbeck's doubts whether Goth. beidan can be directly connected with Lat. fidit 'trusts.' But in view of MHG. stecken 'to remain fast, stick, bide' we may connect beidan, Eng. bide directly with bheid(h) to split, pierce.'

² Cf. Fr. résoudre ' to persuade,' from Lat. resolvere ' to open up ' (?).

the treaty-making. Thus do we best account for the idiom δρκια πιστὰ ταμεῖν 'foedus ferire, icere, percutere,' which lends itself to the interpretation "symbola pactionis fissifacere" rather than to "foederis causa <hostiam</p>
sacruficare" No doubt, however, the cutting up of the animal sacrificed for distribution among the compact-makers was a part of the ceremonial (cf. Aristophanes, Lysis., 192;? Vergil, Aen. 8. 641).

Returning now to vedhás 'fidus,' I conjecture that its orthography with v for b was primarily due to the association of forms of b(h)eidh 'to split, pierce' (cf. Goth. beidan, Eng. bide, Gr. πεπιθοῦσα' as explained above) with forms of the Sanskrit root vyadh vidh 'to pierce' (cf. Lat. di-vidit); or, to put it concretely, I conjecture that *bedhás 'apertus, aperto pectore, 'fidus' has been assimilated to viddhás 'di-visus, apertus;' though it is of course not to be denied that vedhás, defined by 'apertus, etc.' is susceptible to immediate derivation from vídhyati 'peirces.'

4. vádhri.

The close kinship of vádhri and its Greek synonym tθρις 'τομίας, castratus' is not to be called in question, despite their phonetic divergence. The phonetic difficulty is resolved by deriving vádhri from the Sk. root vadh 'to beat, slay,' and τθρις from a base widh-, found in Skr. vídhyati 'pierces,' Lat. di-vidit 'divides," and further attested, I believe, in iσθμός (from *widhtmos, with -tmos from the root tem), '(mare) dividens.' The parallelism of vádhris (*wédhris) and τθρις (wídhris)' throws light on the Skr. root vyadh (not attested in RV.), which I take to be a blend of the root vidh (with grade forms in vedh) and the root vadh.

5. sprsáti 'touches, grasps, feels, besprinkles.'

Uhlenbeck (ai. Woert. s.v.) finds no sure cognates for spṛśáti, but mentions the possibility that Goth. faurhts 'fearful' (without s-) is identical with the ptc. spṛṣṭá 'touched, stirred, moved.' [Professor Hopkins calls my attention to the fact that spṛṣṭá appears as pṛṣṭá in RV. i. 98. 2.] I doubt not, however, that

On the close correspondence of Latin and Sanskrit in parts of their vocabulary, see Kretschmer, Einleitung, 125, ff.

Gr. σπαράσσα 'tears, rends, mangles; mulcat' is cognate with spṛśáti 'touches; mulcet;' cf. Lat. tangit 'mulcet, mulcat.' Goth. faurhts leans to the violent sense of 'mulcat;' as a semantic parallel we may compare Gr. ἐκπλαγείς < 'terror-> smitten.'

Wharton (Etyma Latina) sets down spurcus as a cognate of sprsáti, and I believe this to be correct. We may again illustrate by derivatives of tangit, viz., contaminat, contingit 'defiles,' contactus 'defiled; cf. also tangit 'smears.' The German word ferch 'dung' (without s-) perhaps belongs more closely with spurcus. With these we might group Lat. porcus, supposing the pig to have been named (1) 'the dirty creature,' and not (2) 'the rooter' (porca 'furrow'). Still another possibility for porcus is (3) 'spotted, dark,' cf. Skr. prśni 'spotted, a cow.' Gr. πέρκος, περκνός ('spotted), dark,' πέρκη 'perch' (a dark or spotted fish, cf. our fish-name of "spot"). There is no inconsistency between (1) and (3), 'dirty' and 'spotted' being closely related notions, as Lat. maculosus, e. g., shows. And if porcus meant 'rooter' (2), it may still be a cognate of σπαράσσει 'tears. rends.' I see no reason to doubt, either, that prsani, defined by Boehtlingk as "sich anschmiegend, zärtlich" (mulcens) belongs with sprsati (cf. also Whitney, Roots, Verb-Forms, etc., etc., sub prś), cf. upa-sprśati "zärtlich berührt, liebkost." With this group we may classify the cognates of Lat. procus 'suitor,' precatur 'entreats,' presses (a suit, request); lacessit, flagitat.'

6. khudáti 'futuit.'

Uhlenbeck defines khudáti by "stösst hinein (kaprthám, sapam), and (s)khidáti by "reisst, stösst, drückt." No cognate of khudáti seems to have been pointed out. If the long diphthong gradation -ē(y)-/-ō(w), already referred to in this paper, is correctly assumed, then khudáti and khidáti go back to a common root (see Am. Jr. Phil. xxvi. 396). So far as signification goes, khudáti would seem but a specialization of khidáti, and we might explain its vocalism as something individual, due, to use the metaphor introduced by Bloomfield (IF. iv. 78), to a blend of khidáti and its synonym tudáti 'stösst, sticht, stachelt.'

¹ Eng. entreats derives from Lat. tractat 'handles;' cf. further, Goth. bidjan: Skr. bådhate 'premit' (supra, p. 412).

³ But now cf. Prellwitz, Woert. ² s.v. κίσθος; I would derive κύσθος from khudhtos, Lat. cunnus from khudhnos or khudnos: base khud(h).

But the infection of khidáti by tudáti may as well have begun in the primitive period as in the separate life of Sanskrit. Uhlenbeck remarks s.v. khidáti, "verwantschaft mit chinátti is nicht undenkbar." In Latin both (per-)scindere (= chinátti) and pertundere occur in the special sense of khudáti, the former in Priap. 15. 5, 54, 77. 13, and the latter in Catullus 32. 11. If scindit and tundit thus cross meanings in Latin, we have some confirmation of the supposed association of ideas that changed khidáti to khudáti under the influence of tudáti.

If Lat. cúdit 'strikes, beats' corresponds with Skr. khudáti 'stösst hinein,' the recognition of the Italic cognate would forbid us to regard khudáti as khidáti inflected by tudáti. would not forbid us to suspect that primitive khudéti is khidéti, with the vowel color of tudéti, though we should be bound to admit three roots meaning 'to strike, thrust, pierce, split,' whose weakest forms are; 1) (s)khid3, 2 (s)khud, 3) (s)tud, (cf. Uhlenbeck, op. cit., s. v., tomáras). The derivation of (2) from (1), inflected in its vowel color by (3), is purely glottogonic; not in any case a phonetic question, but rather a psychological question. Provisionally, leaving out the possibility that khudáti is cognate with Lat. cudit (: Germ. hauen, cf. Brugmann, Grund. 1º § 639), we may include khudáti / khidáti among cases like those pointed out by Bloomfield in the essay referred to. Ultimately, perhaps, a psychological treatment of the vowel alternation in the spirit of Wundt's Die Sprache (I1, p. 335 ff.) may be arrived at.

7. Skr. ámbaram.

Uhlenbeck asserts that no satisfactory explanation has been advanced for ámbaram, but it seems to me that an easy one lies at hand. The meanings we have to account for are (1) ambitus, vicinia, (2) amictus. It is phonetically allowable to connect amb- with ἀμφί, Lat. ambi-, cf. Skr. ámbu / ámbhas 'water' for the variation b / bh after nasals. By this explanation ámbaram (subst.) is morphologically comparable with ávara-

¹ Cf. Gr. spotes, which occurs in the same special sense.

² Strong form (s)khēyd (: Lith. skēdziu, Lat. caedit, see Hirt, Ablaut. 67): cf. Amphitruo, 159, quasi incudem caedant, where incudem caedant partakes of the nature of the etymological figure, as does the commoner locution incudem tundere.

'lower,' ápara- 'further' (adj.): ámbara- means 'the surrounding.' For the sense 'amictus,' note the "roundabout" of the sailor, and the style of cloak called "circular." Compare too Sanskrit vásah paridhánam.

8. Pratīcfh in RV. iv. 3. 2d (B,).

 Agni is summoned in this stanza to a fire kindling. The general purport is clear, but there is a verbal difficulty in the last pada,

imá u te svapáka pratícíh,

to wit, as to what substantive is to be supplied with pratīcih. Sāyaṇa supplies 'flames' or 'hymns,' Ludwig 'gentes' or 'cives' or even the 'ladles of the sacrifice,' and Grassmann supplies 'libations,' while Griffith follows Sāyaṇa. In support of the native interpretation I cite vii. 39. 1b (A)

pratīcī jūrņir devatātim eti,

"The toward flame goes to the godhead."

Here the situation is that the fire has been kindled and the flames ascend. In iv. 3. 2, Agni is invited to come and kindle the fire and the 'toward <flames>' are the 'expectant flames' unless, instead of jūrnáyah, we supply samídhah 'kindlings, faggots.' As to svapāka, Ludwig's 'selbst garer' suggests to me 'self-cooker, self-kindler.'

Notes on the Mrcchakotika.—By Dr. Arthur W. Ryder, The University of California, Berkeley, Cal.

The following notes serve as a supplement to my translation' of the Mycchakatika, recently published as Volume ix of the

Harvard Oriental Series.

The method of citation here adopted is a slight modification of that explained on pages xv-xvi of the edition and translation of the Karpūramañjarī, Volume iv of the Harvard Oriental Series. The verses are cited by the act and the number of the individual verse within the act. The citation for prose gives the number of the act, the number of the last preceding verse, and the number of the prose speech counted from the last preceding verse. The following abbreviations require explanation:

Apte. Practical Sanskrit-English Dictionary. By V. S. Apte. Poona, 1890.

Böhtlingk. Mrkkhakatika . . . übersetzt von Otto Böhtlingk. St. Petersburg, 1877.

Calcutta commentary. The commentary of Śrīrāmamayaśarman, found in the Calcutta edition of 1870. This commentary I have been obliged to take at second hand.

Godabole. The Mrichchhakaţika . . . editéd by N. B. Godabole. Bombay, 1896. Bombay Sanskrit Series, No. lii.

HOS. Harvard Oriental Series.

JV. Jīvānanda Vidyāsāgara. Mrichhakatika (sic) . . . edited with a full commentary by Pandit Jibananda Vidyasagara, B.A. Third edition. Calcutta, 1898.

LD. The commentary of Lalladiksita, as given in Godabole's edition.

Lévi. Le Théâtre Indien, par Sylvain Lévi. Paris, 1890.

P. The commentary of Prthvidhara, as given in Parab's edition.

¹ The Little Clay Cart . . . translated . . . by Arthur William Ryder. Harvard Oriental Series, Volume Nine. Cambridge, Massachusetts, 1905.

Parab. The Mrichchhakaţika . . . edited by Kāshināth Pāṇdurang Parab. Bombay, 1900.

Regnaud. Le Chariot de Terre Cuite . . . traduit . . . par Paul Regnaud. Paris, 1876.

Stenzler. Mrcchakațikă . . . sanskrite edidit A. F. Stenzler. Bonn, 1847.

Wilson. Select Specimens of the Theatre of the Hindus, translated . . . by H. H. Wilson. Volume i, pp. 1-182. Third edition. London, 1871.

It is greatly to be regretted that we have no old and full commentary on the Mrcchakatika. The only comment which may be earlier than the nineteenth century is the meager gloss of Prthvidhara, who gives us no information about his date; it is interesting to note (see Parab, 37. 25) that he knew the Brhatkathā. But Prthvīdhara builds upon previous commentators; he refers to a prācīnatīkā (e. g. 40. 28), to ke cit (e. g. 7. 25), to eke and apare (e. g. 26, 25-26). Unless this previous exegesis should come to light, we must remain in doubt about many points, especially in the Prakrit of Samsthanaka and the Candalas. Yet, even so, the Mrcchakatika is one of the easier of the works of the classical Sanskrit literature. Sudraka's vocabulary is not very large, his sentence-structure is simple, and his thought is rarely involved or difficult. Inasmuch as the action of the play continues for only five or six days, the author does not use the Viskambha or the Praveśaka.

In HOS. ix, p. xix, I have called attention to the fact that Sūdraka does not slavishly follow the canons of dramaturgy as laid down in the technical works which we possess. It is worth while in this place to give examples proving that his grammar also conforms less closely to the norm than that of Bhavabhūti, for example.

(a) In i. 14, under stress of meter, he uses nidhanatā in the sense of nirdhanatā. JV. warns us that we must pardon the

¹ See HOS. ix, pp. xxvi-xxix. There is nothing to show whether the action of the tenth act occurs on the same day as that of the ninth act. Windisch, Berichte der philol.-histor. Classe der Königl. Sächs. Gesell-schaft der Wissenschaften 1886, pp. 474-479, allows only four days for the action of the play. But the speech of Viraka, ix. 23, shows that a night had passed between the strangling of Vasantasenā (Act viii) and the trial (Act ix).

blemish, because Śūdraka is a great poet: nidhanaśabdo marane rūdhah, atra tu dhanaśūnyatve prayuktatvāt prasiddhivirodhākhyadoṣah sodhavyah, mahākavipranītatvād iti bodhyam. Cf. Hit. i. 128 (134), where this verse reappears with variants but with nidhanatā. In i. 37, nirdhanatā is used.

(b) In i. 32, he uses the causative form nămyati. This does not prevent his use of the normal nămayati în prose, at viii. 46°. Compare the causative form unnamya, used by Bhavabhūti in

Mālatīmādhava, ix. 31.

(c) iii. 18^s. The masculine singular deśakālah is curious; we should expect either deśakālāu or deśakālam.

(d) v. 30. Here it is hard to parse yadvat, though the meaning is plain enough. But this case is complicated by the reading of the second line; see the note on this verse, below.

- (e) vii. 4. sa tāvad asmād vyasanārņavotthitam. If this reading is correct, we have the ablative asmāt agreeing with the prior member of the compound. Compare, in vii. 8, the curious use of asmin without a noun: so etasmin in Ratnāvalī, ii. 19.
- (f) viii. 38. The use of āśraya as a feminine is, so far as I can find, elsewhere unparalleled.

(g) x. 27. The phrase dūsitam yasah is logically coördinate with maranāt, and should therefore be in the ablative.

. Such instances might be multiplied. In the structure of his verse, also, Śūdraka permits himself some liberties. Instances in point are i. 30, where the third pāda is in a different meter from the rest; iii. 7 (fourth pāda); iv. 17 (second pāda). Lévi has shown (pp. 206-208) in a masterly fashion that such considerations have little value for the dating of the play; but they are of real importance in the exegesis of cases less certain than those given.

Act i.

i. 1. It is of negative interest to observe that Śūdraka's Nāndī invokes the favor of Śiva. Of course, this is the case with the great majority of the plays whose authors are without sectarian bias, and regard their works as pieces of literature without didactic purpose. The sequence of thought in the first three lines is rigid. Line 1 suggests the physical means employed by Śiva to plunge himself into trance; line 2, the consequent numbing of the organs of sense; line 3, the resultant insight into things as they are.

In line 4, the long compound śūnyekṣaṇaghaṭitalayabrahmalagnaḥ is not wholly simple. The commentators and translators differ widely in their interpretations. It seems to me that the Calcutta commentary offers the best explanation: śūnyam, prapañcābhāvaḥ: tasya yad īkṣaṇaṁ darśanaṁ tena ghaṭito jāto yo layaś cittāikāgratā tatpravaṇatāviśeṣo vā, etc. The line may then be literally translated: "May the meditation of Śambhu protect you, which is fixed on the supreme being with an intensity sprung from his insight into the emptiness of the material world."

- i. 4. The information here given about the life of Śūdraka is tantalizingly imperfect. P. tells us that the phrase agnim praviṣṭaḥ means that he made a sacrifice of his body in the fire, as did the old sage Śarabhaūga: see Rāmāyaṇa (Bombay ed.) iii. 5. 38, praviveśa hutāśanam or Raghuvańśa, xiii. 45, cirāya samtarpya samidbhir agnim yo mantrapūtām tanum apy ahāuṣīt. Similar phrases are used in the Mudrārākṣasa, where Viṣṇudāsa is reported to be burning himself alive from grief at the loss of his friend Candanadāsa: vi. 15¹² jalaṇam pavesidukāmo; vi. 15¹² agnipraveśe; vi. 16² hutabhuji praveśahetuḥ; vi. 17² jalaṇam pavisāmi.
- i. 7. See note on iii. 30, below.
- i. 8¹. For the expression annamaam jīaloam pekkhāmi compare Nāgānanda iv. 13¹: putta aham kkhu tujjha maranabhīdā savvam pi jīaloam garudamaam pekkhāmi.
- i. 8°. This speech is interesting in showing how the meaning 'cut' may have come to attach itself to the causative of klp. Kappijjantam plainly signifies here 'cut to pieces, killed,' in its application to Jūrnavrddha; but it also means 'arranged' as applied to the young bride's hair. Both meanings are included in the English 'fix'. The secondary meaning of 'fix' in such slang phrases as "I'll fix him," is quite like the secondary meaning of kalpayati. This explanation seems more natural than that of the PW. The word is used in the sense of 'cut' again in i. 30 and in iii. 21°.

¹ [For a parallel in the development of meaning, compare sud (arrange, 'fix,' kill). En.]

i. 121. The phrase dasie putta atthakallavatta has been, I think, quite misinterpreted by the translators. Wilson has: "The sons of slaves! your guest is ever ready to make a morning meal of a fortune." Regnaud: "Ah les fils d'esclaves! Ils font un déjeuner de votre bien." Böhtlingk: "Diese Söhne von Sclavinnen mit ihrem Bischen Gelde." These translations assume that arthakalyavarta is a bahuvrīhi: 'whose breakfast is money;' but the same word in ix. 221 must mean 'a trifle of money': compare strīkalyavarta in its Prākrit form in iv. 5°, 'a mere trifle, namely a woman; at ii. 124, 4, 131 the word kalyavarta also means a 'trifle.' These translations also miss the point of khajjanti; it is not supposed guests, but the money itself, which makes itself at home only where it isn't used for food (khajjanti), like the cattle-boys who stay only where they are not eaten up (khajjanti) by wasps. The correct interpretation is found in JV., who says: dāsyāh putrā ity anena cāi 'sām (i. e. arthānām) atiheyatā sūcitā. In other words, dāsyāh putrāh is merely a humorous epithet of arthakalyavarta: 'this damned money-trifle.' The phrase dasyah putrah is in Prakrit not infrequently applied to things, with the same illogical humor found in the corresponding use of 'confounded' or 'damned' in English. Compare also "You son-of-a-gun of a fool' (confounded fool). In iii. 614 it is applied to the gemcasket; in v. 471, to the storm. In Sak. vi. 201 (Pischel) and in Nagananda iii. 25, it is applied to bees. It will be noticed that in all these cases the phrase is used by the Vidusaka.

i. 14. This verse reappears as Hitopadeśa i. 134 (Godabole and Parab) with the following variants: line 1, sattvāt paribhraśyate for prabhraśyate tejasah; line 2, nihsattvah for niste-

jāh; line 3, śokanihatah for śokapihitah.

i. 15. The phrase vāiram aparam means 'another (form of) hostility (with mankind)'; the figure is striking. In the second line svajanajana- must mean 'kinsmen and strangers,' as the commentators say. The ca in the third line is difficult: P. and LD. say cakāro hetāu; Böhtlingk and Regnaud adopt this suggestion. But this meaning for ca can hardly be found elsewhere; is it not better to understand it in the sense of 'if' (cet)? Then the line means: "(it is the part of) wisdom to go into the forest if (ca) there is (bhavati) contempt from his wife."

i. 22. Sūdraka uses višesayati in the meaning of 'surpass'

again at iv. 4.

i. 23. It cannot be doubted that Samsthanaka's arithmetic is at fault here; the 'ten names' are really eleven, and are not to be reduced by combination; dase 'ti vyartham, says P. tersely.

i. 30°. With the expression na puspamoşam arhaty udyānalatā, compare iv. 6: no muṣṇāmy abalām vibhūṣaṇavatīm phullām ivā 'ham latām.

i. 30°. The phrase śavāmi bhāvaśśa śīśam attaṇakehim pādehim is repeated almost exactly at viii. 37°. In spite of the differences in case, it can hardly be doubted that Samsthānaka means 'I swear by the gentleman's head and by my own feet,' not '... schwöre ich ... mit meinen Füssen beim Haupte dieses klugen Herrn,' as Böhtlingk translates.

i. 31. The last line is repeated at viii. 171.

i. 32. For the form nāmyati see above, page 420. [It may be due to confusion with -am roots of the ya- class (tāmyati, etc.). The middle (passive) nāmyate also suggests the form. —Ep.]

i. 32³. One of the subtlest points in the character of the ignorant and conceited Samsthänaka is the fact that he permits the Vita to apply to him repeatedly the drastic epithet känelimätr, apparently never realizing the gross insult.

i. 34. Quoted in Dandin's Kavyadarsa, ii. 226, 362.

 i. 34⁴. It seems as if the grammar would be better if bhūṣanaśabdam and mālyagandham were in the nominative.

i. 41. The initial esa 'si harks back, with humorous effect, to the esa 'si of the preceding verse.

 45. Parab's nirmitāh is apparently a mere misprint for nirjitāh.

i. 46. For the form śuskavan, see Pan. viii. 2. 51.

i. 50°. The word kākapadašīšamaštaka, which Samsthānaka applies to Māitreya again at ix. 30° receives two explanations from the commentators. It is said to mean either (1) chief of the princes of sharpers, or (2) whose head-pate is like a caret. The first explanation seems forced and unnatural, the second quite in keeping with Samsthānaka's character; šīšamaštakā iti šakāravānītvena punaruktatvam na doṣaḥ (P.).

i. 50¹⁰. This speech (repeated at i. 55^{2, 5}) contains, so far as I know, the only reference to a female stage-manager (sūtradhārī). For a word like tāṇḍavasūtradhārī (comm. nartane kuśalā) in Cāurapañcāśikā 7 is obviously without bearing on the history of

the drama in India. The expression in our passage cannot be used as direct evidence, since it may be nothing more than

another absurdity of Samsthanaka's.

i. 51. The words line a vele have received a double Sanskritization from the commentators; either as lināyām sa velāyām, or as rṇam ca vāiram. The sense which Böhtlingk and Regnaud extract from the second interpretation is excellent: "a pumpkin stalk . . . , debts, and enmity never rot"; but the construction is very strange, with a string of nominatives followed by na khalu bhavati pūtih. Unless we are willing to take the ungrammatical and illogical form of statement as a part of Samsthānaka's dialect, we are forced to adopt the first explanation: "a pumpkin-stalk . . . do not rot, even when a long time has passed" (JV.: velāyām samaye līnāyām atītāyām api).

i. 52. What does nirvalkalam mean as applied to a sword? It seems to me that the word is used in an extravagant sense; the sword is barkless, i. e., it has no time to gather mould, it is always busy. JV. suggests that it means 'out of its sheath' (valkalam tarutvak, laksanayā tannirmitam kośam, tasmān nirgatam: niskośam ity arthah). This seems quite out of accord with kośasuptam in the next line; but perhaps, after all, Samsthānaka would speak of a 'naked' sword as one 'ungarmented,' and if so, the immediate contradiction of kośasuptam would be but another absurdity of the speaker. Samsthānaka seems

interested in radishes; cf. viii. 34.

i. 52°. Böhtlingk supplies rohasenam as object of prāvrnoti; but there is no indication of Rohasena's actual presence, nor is there any reason why she should do this apavāritakena. Surely, we have to supply ātmānam, as in the common stage-direction apavārya: she wraps herself in the mantle, without letting Cārudatta see. Indeed, Böhtlingk supplies ātmānam with prāvrnoti below at ii. 20°.

i. 56. The phrase bhāgyakṛtām daśām probably refers to Cārudatta's poverty, not to Vasantasenā's profession, as Böhtlingk takes it. Cārudatta deplores, almost too frequently, his plight, but he does not often refer to the fact that Vasantasenā is a courtezan. Besides, this fact surely would not prevent her from entering the house. The two concluding lines are difficult. They seem to mean: "and because of her acquaintance

with men, she does not speak impudently, even though she speaks many things." But Vasantasenā has not spoken a word aloud since her entry into the house; so that perhaps we have to understand 'a man' as subject of bhāṣate. This seems to be Wilson's understanding of the verse; he renders:

- "Nor makes she harsh reply, but silent leaves The man she scorns, to waste his idle words."
- i. 56°. The sense seems to require at the end the phrase utthedha tti which is found in Stenzler and Godabole, but is lacking in Parab and JV.
- i. 57. The striking expression timiranikara, 'multitudinous darkness,' is used again by Bhavabhūti at Māl. viii. 1. Nikara, 'heap,' corresponds exactly to the negro use of heap, in 'heap dark,' etc.

Act ii.

- ii. 0'. The verb alikh is explained by LD. as meaning 'to yearn' (abhilas); Regnaud and Böhtlingk follow this explanation, the former reading kam pi, the latter, kim pi. Perhaps the verb, in combination with hrdayena, does acquire this meaning; but it seems more natural to take it in its ordinary meaning of 'draw, paint': "she is painting something (or 'somebody,' if we read kam pi) with her whole heart." The something is, of course, a picture of Cārudatta, perhaps the one which she is gazing at in iv. 0'. A lovelorn heroine in Indian drama has no more familiar occupation than painting the picture of her belovèd.
- 'ii. 0.4. The text is doubtful; my translation simply attempts to make the best of Parab's text, but the result is not wholly satisfactory. The reading which JV. offers deserves consideration: ko kkhu nāma ajja attabhodīe anugahido mahūsave tarunajano—What young person now receives my mistress' favor in the great festival (of her joy; mahān utsava ānandasvarūpas tasmin)?
- ii. 2¹. We may read devī bhaviśśam as two words 'I will turn goddess,' or devībhaviśśam as one word, 'I will turn god.' The situation is reproduced in Kipling's Krishna Mulvaney.
- ii. 4°. Parab's reading krīdati seems inferior to krīdatah of Stenzler and Godabole, and seems to have no Ms. authority.

- 626. The chāyā should read dhūrtye instead of dhūrtayāmi.
- 9. In Parab's text, tretāhrtasārvasvah should be printed as one word.
- ii. 10'. In this speech and in ii. 11' the word tapasvī seems to be used in a double sense; on the one hand it means 'poor, unfortunate (varāka)' and on the other hand, 'saint.' The second meaning is made almost certain by the fact that each of these speeches is followed by a verse describing ascetic practices. Then ayam tapasvī, like ayam janah, will refer to the speaker, not to Māthura, as LD. and the translators understand, and the little speech will mean: "and yet, what more should a poor saint like me do? for I, etc." This is the view which JV. presents: tapasvī varāko nirdoṣo 'kṣama iti vā: ayam ity ātmanirdeśo dardurakaḥ kim karisyati karotv ity arthaḥ.
- ii. 13° (just before ii. 14). The word tulidam is difficult; probably it means 'proportioned (to her innocence),' as the same word in ii. 14 means 'proportioned (to his strength).'
- 14'. Godabole's suggestion that lakkhida mhi represents in Sanskrit raksito 'smi is worthy of consideration.
 - ii. 14'. Read kam for the kim of Parab's text.
- ii. 14^{ss} (just before ii. 15). The phrase kudo so dhanio is intentionally ambiguous. On the one hand, it means: "Where is your creditor (i. c. Māthura)?" On the other hand, it means: "How can he (Cārudatta) be a rich man?" The shampooer is shrewd enough to see that it is the hidden meaning which really interests Vasantasenā, and answers accordingly.
- ii. 15. Both the meter and the interpretation offer difficulties. On the meter, see Stenzler, pp. 257-258. The meaning of lines 3 and 4 depends on the presence or absence of na, given in Parab's text and assumed as present by P., but having very little Ms. support. If na be kept, then we must, with P., assume that the last line contains a rhetorical question; and so I have translated. But I confess that the latter half of the verse puzzles me greatly.
- ii. 162. The reading nam is preferable to Stenzler's na, and has more Ms. authority.
- ii. 16¹. Here Parab's reading seems inferior to the ajjo bandhuanam samassasidum of Stenzler and Godabole.
- ii. 16t. The phrase is one of exaggerated courtesy: "mistress, if it may be, then let this art remain in the hands of a

servant (of yours)," that is to say, "take me into your service." Regnaud translates: " . . . permettez-moi d'exercer mon art à votre service," which renders the idea freely; but Böhtlingk seems to me to miss the point with his translation: " . . . gestatte, dass ich diese meine Kunst den Händen deiner Dienerschaft anvertraue," JV. is very clear: parijanahastagatā parijanasya posyajanasya mame 'ti bhāvah . . . sevakatvena mām anumanyasve 'ti bhavah.

ii. 17. Doubtless Stenzler is right in printing bihaccham (bībhatsam). It is hard to see how vīhattham could represent a Sanskrit vihastam, and the efforts of the commentators to

explain the latter word are far from satisfactory.

ii. 18. The edi (eti) of the other texts seems preferable to Parab's ehi.

Parab's tac ca seems inferior to the tam ca of Stenzii. 191. ler and Godabole.

ii. 193. The phrase vāmacalanena jūdalekkhaam ugghusia ugghusia has caused commentators and translators considerable difficulty. It is plain from the word dyutalekhaka that the monk is none other than the shampooer; this much P. has seen. The word lekhaka is used in ii. 2, where it plainly has the meaning 'a (gambling) score.' Stenzler's chāyā is right, I think, in taking ugghusia as the representative of udghrsya rather than of udghusya. The phrase then becomes simple enough: "stumbling with my left foot over a gambler's score." The suddenly metamorphosized shampooer has forgotten to rid himself of his gambling paraphernalia, which he drops when attacked by the elephant.

ii. 20'. The custom of marking a garment with the owner's

name is referred to again in viii, 4311.

Act iii.

iii. 2. For Parab's annapaśattakalatte we have another reading annakalattapaśatte. Either gives a good sense.

iii. 3. LD. suggests that priyatamā virahāturāṇām may be taken as one word: 'of those sick because of separation from the beloved.'

iii. 81. The svapitah of Stenzler and Godabole is better than the svapiti of Parab and JV.

iii. 12. P. and LD. explain darśanantaragata as meaning

'found in the treatises on robbery,' and this, I think, is correct: cf. darśitah in iii. 12'. Regnaud also follows the commentators on this point.

iii. 13. The commentators take vistimam as a separate form of breach, and so obtain seven forms in all, according to the passage from the Cauradarsana which they quote. This is a point on which it is best to follow their authority, but Böhtlingk (p. 190) states the objections.

iii. 14. Regnaud and Böhtlingk take visamāsu in the sense of 'difficult'; but I think LD. is right in giving it the meaning 'unsuccessful' (viparītāsu). The epithet then anticipates and explains the dosān of the fourth line.

iii. 16'. The words cikitsām kṛtvā are better taken as part of the text, not of the stage-direction.

iii. 17¹. Parab's na in the phrase kva na khalu salilam bhavisyati is apparently a mere misprint for nu.

iii. 18'. It seems to me that the translators miss the point in tan mamā 'pi nāma śarvilakasya bhūmistham dravyam when they interpret: "whatever is underground is my property" (Wilson). Does not the speaker rather mean: "well, the property belonging to me too, to Śarvilaka, is underground," that is, "I have no property?" If this is correct, the clause is merely a humorous afterthought to the preceding sentence.

iii. 18°. On deśakālah, see above, p. 420. The construction of dhikkṛtam andhakāram (bis) is quite unclear to me; the translators take dhik kṛtam as two words: 'fie on the made darkness.' This construction seems very forced and awkward, but I can offer nothing better. I think, however, that a mark

iii. 182. Apparently Parab's kim na is a misprint for kim nu.

darkness.' This construction seems very forced and awkward, but I can offer nothing better. I think, however, that a mark of punctuation should precede bhadrapīthena: 'fie on the darkness caused by the bhadrapītha; or rather, fie on the darkness caused by me,' etc. The reading asmadbrāhmaṇakule of Stenzler and Godabole seems better than the -kulena of Parab and JV.

iii. 19. The word anirveditapāurusam is very curious; we should expect anivedita-, 'to which manliness is unknown,' and this is what JV. reads. Perhaps we have to parallel this form with nidhanatā for nirdhanatā in i. 14 (see above, p. 419), but the meter does not demand the form anirvedita- here.

iii. 20. Read in Parab's text väg deśa-.

iii. 21'. It is strange that Māitreya should quote the words dudiam via duāraam ugghādidam, when Radanikā has not used the expression in what precedes.

iii. 24. This verse is repeated as v. 43.

iii. 26°. The sentence beginning bhaavam kaanta is repeated almost literally at vi. 0°°, this latter time in Vasantasena's mouth.

iii. 29. This verse is repeated as v. 7.

iii. 29'. With asmaccharīraspṛṣtikā (a gesture of solemn asseveration) cf. the expression mārjāro bhūmim spṛṣtvā karņāu spṛṣti in the fable of the cat and the vulture in the first book of the Hitopadeśa. JV. has: gātrasamsparśena śapathakaranam lāukikaprasiddham eva.

iii. 30. In the second half of this verse the words na yasya rakṣām are difficult of interpretation. This difficulty doubtless . explains the presence of the variant nrpasya raksan, which Stenzler adopts. This latter reading gives a good sense, and forms the basis of the translations of Regnaud and Böhtlingk. But the large majority of the Mss. have na yasya raksum; and as this is the lectio difficilior, we are bound to make what we can of it. It is easy to see how na yasya raksām might be altered by a puzzled reader into nrpasya raksan, while the reverse process is almost inconceivable. The commentators give little help. P. and LD. are silent. JV. has: yasya sandhe raksām na pariharāmi na tyajāmi satatam eva sandhim raksāmī 'tv arthah. This reads almost like nonsense, for it makes the second half of the verse contradict the first half; the last thing which Carudatta desires is the preservation of the breach. The Calcutta commentary is hardly more successful; yasya sandhe raksām raksanam svarūpenā 'vasthānam iti yāvat: na pariharāmi no 'pekse sandhim raksitum na śaknomi 'ty arthah. Here the explanation of raksam as "the preservation (of the breach) in its present form" is ingenious enough; but the commentator is forced to give to na pariharami a meaning exactly the reverse of that which the phrase should have. Surely na (sandheh) raksām pariharāmi must needs mean: "I do not avoid the preservation (of the breach) in its present form," which is precisely the opposite of what the speaker wishes to say. Wilson translates as if the na were absent: "we'll leave no trace to catch the idle censure of men's tongues." The translation of Wilson and the brave attempt of the Calcutta commentary point the

way, I think, to the solution of the difficulty. Obviously, the trouble lies in the na. The clause becomes plain enough if we read nayasya, which involves no change in the Ms. reading. The verse may then be translated: "Quickly close up the breach with these bricks; I avoid the preservation of justice. because of the abundant evil of scandal." The word nava occurs once more in the play, in i. 7: nayapracāram vyavahāradustatām. In this passage the words naya and vyavahāra are used, it seems to me, with a slight double entendre. The line means, on the one hand, "the practice of legal justice, and the vicious quality of a legal process," as illustrated in the ninth act of the play, and, on the other hand, "the practice of justice (referring to Carudatta) and viciousness of conduct (referring to Samsthanaka)." This affords a further suggestion for iii. 30. Carudatta means to say: "I am willing, under the circumstances, to thwart the law," and perhaps he wishes his auditors to understand nothing more than this; but to himself he means to say: "Scandal is such a dreadful evil that I am justified in departing from the course of conduct which strict justice demands." The word naya, with its more specific and its more general meaning, like "justice" in English, is admirably adapted to express both the artha and the bhava, the superficial and the deeper meaning.

Act iv.

- iv. 1. We should surely read rakṣān instead of rakṣyān.
- iv. 3. The second line is explained by iii. 12; it was unlucky for a thief to see a woman during his expeditions. JV. remarks that the caurasastra forbids a thief to enter such a house as that here described.
- iv. 7¹. Delete the mark of punctuation after alamkārao in Parab and Godabole.
- iv. 7°. Stenzler is right in printing the iti as part of the stage-direction.
- iv. 14. The slight illogicality in the singular -sumanāh is doubtless owing simply to the stress of meter, and is not worth the trouble which the commentators give themselves to explain it.
 - iv. 17. The meter is irregular (12. 11: 12.12).

iv. 20. In the third line, vā has more authority than ca, and is probably the correct reading; it seems to be used in the sense of eva (JV. has vā avadhāraņe).

iv. 24¹. JV. takes rāṣtriya to mean chief-of-police (rāṣtra-pālaḥ: nagararakṣāyām niyutko rājapuruṣa ity arthaḥ), rather than brother-in-law of the king; and I think he is right, for Samsthānaka nowhere appears as a government officer, giving sensible orders in Sanskrit. On the other hand, rāṣtriya is used at ix. 38⁴ and x. 51⁴ in the meaning 'brother-in-law of the king.' As Böhtlingk remarks (p. 192), we should have an iti at the end of the speech.

iv. 25°.2 This is the only indication in the play that Sarvilaka is the son of Rebhila.

iv. 27⁴. There seems to be a pun on puspaka, and I have translated accordingly. The reading naaranārī is better than Parab's naranārī.

iv. 27°. The pompous language of this description of the portal makes one wonder whether it is not an intentional travesty. In the long compound beginning with toraṇa-, JV. explains -vediā- as 'pedestals' (talasthabaddhapradeśāh).

iv. 27¹⁰. There is doubt about the form and meaning of kūraccuatellamissam. If the second element represents Sanskrit-cyuta-, perhaps it means 'drippings.' P. has bhaktatāilaghṛtamiśrapindam; but JV. analyses quite differently: kūrād dravyaviśeṣāc cyutam niṣṭbyūtam yat tāilam tena miśram yuktam. The word kūra is used again in x. 29.

iv. 27". If sāhīṇa- really belongs here (it'is lacking in many Mss.'), it probably means 'own'; the whole word will then mean 'possessed of its own dice, made out of gems.' Read paribbhamanti in Parab.

iv. 27¹⁴. Here pagīdāo must be used in an active sense, 'singing' (prakarṣeṇa gānaparā ity arthaḥ: JV.). Sasiñgārao (saśrñgāraḥ) is impossible; we must read either sasiñgārāo (fem. plu.) or sasiñgāraam.

iv. 28°. On the tame madanasārikā, see HOS. iv, page 229, note 8. To pesīanti LD. supplies yoddhum, 'are provoked to fight.' In Parab's text, pandīkidā is a misprint for pindīkidā.

iv. 29. This passage (mā dāva . . . loassa) is printed by Stenzler, Godabole, and JV. as prose; only Parab regards it as a verse. The matter is of a sort which the Vidūṣaka would be

apt to put into verse; it is not narration nor description, but a kind of humorous moralizing. If we regard the passage as verse, it falls into five padas, the scheme of which is 12, 17: 13, 14, 15. Now if we disregard the fifth pada, and apply the rule pādāntastham vikalpena (Śrutabodha 2) or vā pādānte (Vrttaratnākara, i. 9), we obtain the scheme 12, 18: 12, 14. which makes a pretty fair āryā; and it seems to me that Parab is right in assuming that the Vidusaka speaks here in verse. But what becomes of the words anahigamanio loassa? It is of course possible that they were intended by Sudraka as a prose remark following the verse; but this is improbable. The words add nothing to the sense of the passage; they are merely an explanation of the comparison of Vasantasenā's brother with a graveyard champak. Is it not probable that these words were originally a gloss? It would be natural for a reader to add the marginal comment anabhigamanīyo lokasya; the next scribe might easily incorporate the remark into the text, and the easy change into Prakrit would naturally follow. We have an interesting parallel in vi. 20°. Here Candanaka, after his Prākrit speech, adds in Sanskrit: kim śabdavicarah: stripunnapumsaka-"Why consider the words? vyākhyānam aprastutam. exposition of feminine, masculine, and neuter is irrelevant." Although all the Mss. give this matter, it is rendered very suspicious by the unmotivated change into Sanskrit, and has all the appearance of being a gloss. Parab omits it; and JV., omitting it in the text, gives it as a part of his comment. I think there can hardly be a doubt that JV. has correctly preserved the original division between text and comment; and if this is true, it seems probable that the same process has taken place in iv. 29, with the added step of changing the isolated Sanskrit words into Prākrit.

iv. 29¹. The commentators take phullapāvāraa- to mean 'a garment embroidered with flowers;' and in view of the variant pupphapāvāraa-, this is perhaps to be preferred to the meaning 'expanded, baggy.'

iv. 29°. The correct reading of the word which Parab gives in the form kavatthadāinīe is doubtful; and P.'s interpretation of kavattha- as = kapardaka does not help. We can hardly do better than read karatta- and adopt the explanation 'dirty.'

iv. 30°. Read in Parab's text accharia- (āścarya-) for accharidi-, and write rovidā aņeapādavā as two words.

iv. 32. As soon as the conversation becomes familiar, Vasantasenā reverts to Prākrit.

Act v.

- v. 2. The compound in the first line is thus analyzed by LD. and JV.: jalārdramahisasyo 'daram bhrāgaś ca tadvan nīlah.
- v. 5. To the word patrachedya (cf. chedya 'engraved') the commentators unite in giving the conventional (rūdha) meaning 'picture,' and we can hardly doubt that they are right, as patra is used in the same way with other words implying marking upon a (leaf) plate.

v. 6. In the second line, va = iva. In the third line adhvanam means 'road' in reference to Yudhisthira, but 'silence'

(a-dhvāna) in reference to the kokila.

v. 7. This verse is the same as iii. 29.

- v. 7¹. LD. has an artificial explanation of the last clause, according to which duṣṭāḥ = doṣāḥ, and the whole is to be taken as ironical. The translators seem to follow his lead. Böhtlingk, however, points out (p. 196) that duṣṭāḥ should be neuter, if this explanation is right. But a simple, literal translation gives better sense and better humor: "there even rogues are not born," i. e. a courtezan, an elephant, etc., make it impossible for anything, even a rascal, to flourish. This is also JV.'s understanding of the passage: duṣṭāḥ sadoṣā api janā na jāyante na tiṣṭhantī 'ty arthaḥ: doṣātirekasyā 'vaśyambhāvād iti bhāvaḥ.
- v. 9¹ In kāmo vāmo, the Vidūsaka makes use of his third homely prose proverb in this scene. This is one of the touches which make Māitreya a living character, very different from the stock Vidūsaka.
- v. 93. Stenzler and JV. are wrong in rendering avedha by apeta (= apagacchata). Of course, it represents aveta, 'understand.'
- v. 11^{2.5}. This little scene is imitated by Harsa in the Ratnāvalī, ii. 6^{6 7}.
- v. 11°. We would welcome an a (ca) after andhaāre. But compare duddiņandhaāre in v. 38°.
- v. 1114. The verb kākāasi shows pretty plainly that indamahakāmuko here means 'a crow' (so P. and JV.), not 'a dog.'

VOL. XXVII. 25

v. 1118. Parab's punctuation, with the mark after tena hi, is The expression seems very colloquial: "first guess it, man; then (you may do as you like)."

v. 11° (just before v. 12). In Parab's text, suvassabhandaam

is, of course, a misprint for suvanna-.

The word nirantarapayodharaya is used in a double sense. In reference to the night as a natural object, it means 'whose clouds are close together'; in reference to the night as a rival wife, it means 'whose breasts are close together (i. e.

swelling).'

- v. 152. In my translation, I have taken strīsvabhāvadurvidagdhayā to mean 'ignorant of woman's nature,' because this meaning seemed to fit the context better than 'obstinate because of her woman's nature'; but the latter meaning, I now think, seems more natural to the word, and is probably correct.
- The commentators are doubtless right in taking prositabhartr as a feminine, 'whose husbands are distant,' though in prose we should expect prositabhartrkā.

v. 19. In Parab's text, balākāpāndurosnīsam should be

printed as one word.

v. 20. JV. explains protsārya by apasārya: 'the clouds have

driven away and captured the moonlight.'

- v. 30. Parab's reading nirapeksa seems to me better than niraveksya, especially as I find no other instance of the compound niraveks. The construction is elliptical, but easily intelligible: "as (was thy grief when) thou didst speak falsely . . . , such is my grief also; O cruel! Let the cloud be restrained."
- In the fourth line, Parab's reading -mukha- seems to me much better than the -sukha- of the other editions. genitives then modify -mukha-, as if we had daksinyapanyasya mukhasya niskrayasiddhir astu. The verse may be literally translated: 'May you have success in the sale of your face, the birthplace of fraud, deceit, and lies, together with pride; consisting of perfidy, in which love-sports have made their home; the courtezan's stock-in-trade, the compendium of amorous festivals; the price of which is courtesy.'

v. 40. The use of adita eva is unusual; it is precisely equivalent to our colloquial 'from the start,' 'from the word go.'

The commentators are sorely troubled by drstapurvasamgamavismrtanam, and offer very forced and artificial explanations. Does it not mean simply 'forgotten in the gatherings of their former associates'?

- v. 421. The bath-clout is that mentioned in iii. 181.
- v. 43. This verse is the same as iii. 24.
- v. 50. The compound pracalitavedisamcayantam is difficult, and the commentators not wholly satisfactory. Probably vedi means 'pedestal' (cf. note on iv. 27°); samcaya (aggregation) perhaps means 'a construction of closely-joined bricks (LD. militabhir iṣṭikābhir nirmāṇam)': then vedisamcaya will mean 'the brick-work of the pillar-pedestals.' The whole compound will therefore signify 'by which the edges of the brick-work of the pillar-pedestals are shaken.' In other words, the awning, flapping in the wind and rain, threatens to tear out by the roots the pillars to which it is fastened. In the fourth line, Parab's text should read samklinnā for saklinnā; the word' means 'soggy.'

Act vi.

- vi. 036. The words bhaavam . . . purisabhaadheehim are repeated almost literally from iii. 268.
- vi. 046. The chāyā should read tvarate for tvarayati; the latter would be in Prākrit tuvaredi.
- vi. 1. It is possible to understand the long compound in the first and second lines in either of two ways: "the great ocean of misery and woe, called (apadeśa = vyapadeśa) the king's prison'; or 'the great ocean of woe resulting from misery under the guise (apadeśa = misa, LD. or chala, JV.) of the king's prison.' The slight awkwardness observable when Śūdraka attempts to form long compounds, as in this verse (twice) and in v. 24 (see note on that verse, above), serves at least to help our appreciation of Bhavabhūti's exquisite skill in handling them.
- vi. 1. The use of viśasane is curious; either we must understand the word as an adjective (vināśajanake, JV.; mörderisch, Böhtlingk), or else take the word as a locative of purpose (Vārttika on Pāṇini, ii. 3. 36, quoted by LD. and the Calcutta commentary). The difficulty of taking the word as an adjective has led me to adopt the second interpretation, as does Regnaud also; but the case does not fall exactly under the Vārttika, because there is no karmasamyoga, i. e. the thing sought after is not

connected with the object of the action (see Kielhorn's Gram-

mar, § 633 a).

vi. 2. The last two lines are puzzling; the difficulty lies partly in the sequence of thought, partly in the word gamya 'approachable.' For 'approachable' may mean either 'capable of being pacified' (gatvā sandheyah santvanīya ity arthah, JV.; sarvesām sevyah, P. and the Calcutta commentary) or 'capable of being attacked': so Böhtlingk (einem Könige kann man wohl beikommen), and my translation. Besides, gamyo may represent agamyah out of saudhi. Then who is the balavant-Palaka. or Fate, or Āryaka? And finally, does dāivī siddhih mean 'success (in attaining the throne) due to fate,' or is it merely a circumlocution for daivam? The translation of Böhtlingk, which mine closely resembles, gives a reasonable sense, but involves an awkward shifting of the point of view. Regnaud is ingenious, but hardly convincing; he takes dāivī siddhih to mean 'fate,' and regards fate as identical with the king and the powerful one; the change of gender makes this very harsh. I would suggest another interpretation, without very much confidence in its correctness. "Even success (in attaining the throne; rājaprāptir api, JV.) cannot be avoided; a king (i. e. I myself, destined to become king) must be appeased; for who can fight with him who is powerful?" That is, he cannot prevent my becoming king, for fate wills it; he had better make terms, for I am potentially more powerful than he. This interpretation is rather subtle and tortuous for Śūdraka; but it saves api from being a mere verse-filler, and preserves the same logical subject throughout the verse. On the other hand, it seems irrelevant to the following prose.

vi. 3. The reading adattadando, found in Parab and JV., gives better meter than the anayatargalam of Stenzler and Godabole.

- vi. 6. I think we have to take vīsatthā (viśvastāḥ) as a vocative: 'my trusty men.'
- vi. 7. The word sahāsu (sabhāsu) probably refers here to gambling dens, dives.
- vi. 15¹. It seems probable to me that pūrvavāirī and pūrvabandhuḥ mean 'enemy in a former life' and 'friend in a former life' rather than 'former enemy' and 'former friend.' In the play itself, there is no indication of any previous acquaintance of Āryaka's with Vīraka or Candanaka.

vi. 16. In Parab's text, read eka- for eka-.

vi. 181. There is no other allusion in the play to the fact that Sarvilaka had 'given life' to Candanaka.

vi. 202. See note on iv. 29.

vi. 22. I think it can hardly be doubted that Parab's chāyā interprets correctly the puzzling word kuccaganthi- as = Sanskrit kūrcagranthi-. The word then means 'beard-knots, scrubby beards.'

vi. 23°. In Parab's text, tathā should be printed as part of the stage-direction. See Shankar Pandit's edition of the Mālavikāgnimitra, page 168, note 51.

Act vii.

- vii. 1º. In Parab's text, read vaddhamanao for vaddhamanaa.
- vii. 2. Parab's reading karmāntojjhita- seems preferable both to Stenzler's karmāntotthita- and the vartmāntojjhita- of Godabole and JV.; for the -utthita- of Stenzler must be rather forced to give a meaning, and so must the -anta- (= madhye LD.; madhyabhāge JV.) of the other texts. Parab's reading means of course 'left at the end of work.'
- vii. 3. For the fourth line, compare D. D. Cunningham, Indian Friends and Acquaintances (New York, 1904), pp. 64-65: "The order of events is this: when everything is ready and a desirable nest has been chosen, the cock-koïl, conspicuous in his shining black plumage and crimson eyes, seats himself on a prominent perch, whilst the hen, in modest speckled grey garb, lurks hidden among dense masses of neighbouring foliage. then lifts up his voice and shouts aloud, his voice becoming more and more insistent with every repetition of his call, and very soon attracting the attention of the owners of the nest, who rush out to the attack and chase him away. Now comes the chance for his wife, who forthwith nips in to deposit her egg. Very often she does this successfully before the crows have returned, but every now and then she is caught in the act and driven off like her husband, uttering volleys of shrill outcries."
- vii. 4. Parab's reading asmād vyasanārnavotthitam has rather more authority than Stenzler's asmād vyasanān navotthitam, and is a more forcible expression; Godabole and JV. have the same reading as Parab, though LD. seems to explain the

other reading. If Parab's text represents the original, we have an example of loose grammatical structure, inasmuch as asmāt must modify the prior member of the compound: cf. above, p. 420.

vii. 5. JV. and the Calcutta commentary are quite right in pointing out that the reading nigadayugmam contradicts the ekacaranalagnanigadah of vi. 0⁵² (shortly before vi. 1) and the pādāgrasthitanigadāikapāśakarṣī of vi. 1 (also the caraṇān nigadam apanaya of vii. 6² and the nigadam of vii. 8; on the other hand, the plural is used at vii. 6^{2,4,5}); no doubt the reading nigadam ekam of Parab and JV. or the nigadapāśam of the Calcutta commentary is in itself preferable: but the reported

manuscripts all read nigadayugmam.

vii. 6. The expression samgacchehi niadāim is very curious. If this represents samgacchasva nigadāni, as it seems to, both the construction and the sense are difficult; for nigadāni ought to be in the instrumental, and there seems no reason why Māitreya should say "be united with the fetters." Commentators and translators are alike unsatisfactory. It is just possible that there is a smutty pun in samgacchasva, that Māitreya means to hint that Cārudatta, not being able to be united (sexually) with Vasantasenā, must be content to be united with what has actually come in the cart, namely the fetters. But this does not explain the case of niadāim.

vii. 6¹². The word before gatih is given in the following forms; atilaghusamcārā, alaghusamcārā, alaghusamcārā (Godabole reads laghusamcārā). Doubtless alaghusamcārā gatih yields a good meaning most easily: "your progress is one whose movement is not easy," i. e. 'you will find walking difficult'; but the lectio difficilior alaghusamvārā (Parab's reading) has a good deal of authority. If it is correct, it seems to mean 'whose concealment is not easy'; in this case, Cārudatta means that Aryaka would probably be detected if he left the cart. The reading -samcārā may have crept in from the -samcāre in the next clause.

vii. 7. It is a not uncommon stylistic device in Indian dramas to divide a verse. Sometimes the different parts are spoken by different characters, as here and at Uttararāmacarita i. 33; Mālatīmādhava iii. 18; x. 8: sometimes the same character speaks the whole verse, but is interrupted by prose speeches from others, as at i. 44; Mudrārākṣasa vi. 16; Ratnāvalī iv. 19; Venīsamhāra vi. 16; Prasannarāghava v. 35. A peculiarly elaborate case is Uttararāmacarita iv. 24-25, where a verse is interrupted by a prose speech and by a second verse, this latter verse being itself divided between two characters.

Act viii.

viii. 1'. There is some doubt about the reading, but that given in Parab's chāyā (. . . kevalam . . . śaraṇam asmi) has the most authority and is easier than . . . narah . . . śaraṇe (gacched iti śeṣah LD.). With the accepted reading, the line means: "Having seen (mundane things: samsāram JV.) from the standpoint of transitoriness, I am now the abode of virtues only."

viii. 2. In the third line, we should probably read a (ca) for Parab's ka (kva); then the jena of the first line governs lines 1-3. If we read ka (kva), it must mean, I suppose, 'in whom.'

viii. 3°. Apte (s.v. apa-vah) gives to apavāhayati in this passage the meaning 'cause to carry the yoke,' while JV. gives it the meaning 'beat' (tādayati). At any rate, it seems as if the causative should mean a little more than 'chase away' (Böhtlingk), especially in consideration of the case of goṇam. For the accusative shows that the action of the verb as well as that of the gerund should be appropriate not only to the monk, but also to the bullock. At viii. 44' we have a parallel passage, in which vāhitaḥ (P., however, takes vāhide to represent bādhitaḥ) is used without apa; here too, JV. explains vāhitaḥ by tāditaḥ.

viii. 3⁴. The word āpānaka is used in the same sense of 'drinking party' at Nāgānanda iii. 2³. For the red radish,

compare the note on i. 52, above.

viii. 4. Böhtlingk's interpretation of the fourth line is, I think, correct: "(der Garten . . .) kann wie ein neu angetretenes Königthum genossen werden, ohne dass man es sich erst zu erobern brauchte"; but his interpretation of upabhogya (in the PW.) as a noun seems unnecessary. It is more natural to take anirjitopabhogyam as a karmadhāraya 'to be enjoyed without having to be conquered (by one's own efforts).' Perhaps LD. is right in thinking that the vita intends to rebuke Samsthānaka's brutal conduct by contrasting it with the gentle invitation of the park.

- viii. 4°. The word dhanya means 1. blessèd, 2. infidel; punya means 1. virtuous, 2. a brick watering-trough. This accounts for Samsthānaka's blunder in thinking that he has been called a materialist (cārvāka) and a brick trough (koṣṭhaka); but why he should add kumbhakāra, I am unable to see. The word is omitted by some authorities and is not present in LD.'s comment.
- viii. 412. In Parab's text, delete the marks of punctuation after pianti and nhāāmi; for tahim must refer back to jahim. The reading -śavalāim (-śabalāni) of Stenzler and JV. seems preferable to the -śavannāim (-savarnāni) of Parab and Godabole, and has considerable authority. The expression in the last clause 'I will make you a man of one blow' seems very idiomatic; in x. 3519 we have the expression ekkappahālena mālia.
- viii. 5. The phrase dūram nigūdhāntaram is very puzzling and the commentators are unsatisfactory. Perhaps it modifies vastrāntam and means '(the hem of the garment) by which the middle part is quite (dūram) concealed', that is, he has thrown the end so clumsily over his shoulder that it hides the greater part of the garment: but this seems very awkward. Assuming this explanation, the last two lines may be literally translated: "and he has not learned the (proper) arrangement of the yellow robe; and the hem of the garment, by which the middle part is quite concealed, loose because of the bagging of the cloth, does not fit on his shoulder."
- viii. 6. We should expect vṛkṣamānsāih, to correspond in formation with śilāśakalavarṣmabhih; the epithets are curious enough.

viii. 10. This is one of the rare cases in which Samsthanaka's mythology is correct.

- viii. 14°. Instead of ayam āgatah, we should expect idam āgatam, since pravahaņa is neuter in Sanskrit; perhaps ayam refers to Sthāvaraka.
- viii. 1422. The expression hagge attanakelake na huvissam is unusual; it seems to mean 'I shall not be my own any longer,' 'I shall be dead.'

viii. 17'. The quotation is the last line of i. 31.

viii. 20. JV. takes daśanahuppalamandalehim as a bahuvrīhi, 'whose lotus-heaps are ten finger-nails' (daśa nakhā utpalamandalāny utpalasamūhā yayos tābhyām); but it seems more natural to take it as a karmadhāraya, 'having ten finger-nails and discs like those of lotuses.' In the next line, cāduśadatādaṇa-is a karmadhāraya; JV. analyzes cāṭuśatāṇi priyavacanaśatānī 'va tādanāni prahārāḥ.

viii. 22. JV. gives to the words tusti kādum the meaning 'to do me a favor,' which is ingenious, and possibly correct.

viii. 22'. Here gandha means 'a mere smell,' 'a particle'; cf. the kāśikā on Pāṇini v. 4. 136: alpaparyāyo gandhaśabdah. The same use of the word is found in Yogabhasya i. 48: na tatra viparyāsagandho 'py asti and iv. 15: nā 'nayoh sañkaragandho 'pv asti; while Regnaud and Böhtlingk see the same meaning in raktagandhanuliptam in x. 3: compare the note on that verse, below. Regnaud has called attention to the meaning 'a certain perfume' (canda) which the PW., on the authority of Amara and the Medini, gives for raksasi, and sees a deliberate pun on the part of the author; the suggestion is both ingenious and convincing. JV. adds a further point by suggesting that Samsthanaka misunderstands the vita's use of akāryam; the vita means 'something that must not be done,' 'a sin,' but Samsthanaka takes him to mean 'something that cannot be done,' an impossibility, and so declares that it is not a witch after all.

viii. 24. Compare Manu viii. 86.

viii. 24'. Read palihiśśam for pahiliśśam.

viii. 28'. The word mallakka- (if, indeed, this be the correct spelling) here and at ix. 5" has caused a good deal of trouble. The 'earlier commentary' (prācīnatīkā) quoted by P. gives it the meaning 'a small vessel made of a leaf' (patraputikā), and this is adopted by LD. JV. reads gallakka- and offers the meaning 'cur' (kukkura), but he quotes no authority, and on ix. 5" he says that gallarka is a dialectic word for wine-vessel. In Māitreya's speech at the very beginning of act i, and in v. 6" we have the same word, with the same Ms. variations between initial m and initial g, and between single and double k; in both places it must mean some kind of dish, and in v. 6" it must mean 'a drinking-vessel'; and that is doubtless the meaning which we have to accept in this passage.

viii. 29. This verse is repeated at ix. 7, with nitaram for

sutarām.

viii. 304. The Prākrit ņāśeņa represents Sanskrit nyāsena

and also nāśena. The pun is obvious.

The words sevaam and kastamaa are doubtful. Stenzler prints śe vaam as two words, but in his chāyā gives te vayam; te would of course be de in Prakrit, and this Böhtlingk conjectures (p. 204). But the authorities speak overwhelmingly for sevaam, Sanskrit sevakam. Then Stenzler's chava understands kastamaā as equal to Sanskrit kāsthamayāh rather than kastamayah. Of course the t speaks against this, but the meaning to be extracted from the words (te vayam kāsthamayāh) would then have to be that given by Böhtlingk, "Are we to you men of wood?" This seems an unnatural rendering in itself, and has no support in the context. Certainly Vasantasenā understands the speaker to make a comparison between himself and Carudatta, to the disadvantage of the latter. Her sevitavyah (vs. 33) takes up the sevakam of the present verse, and her daridrah (vs. 33) refers back to kastamayāh. Samsthānaka asks her why she does not desire him, and why she prefers a poor man; she answers that the poor man's character is good, while his is bad. Probably, then, we must read kim sevakam kaştamaya manusyah, and render: "why are poor men the object of (your) devotion?" True, the matter would be simpler if we could read sevyante or sevyāh.

viii. 32. Stenzler prints the entire first line as one word; JV. divides khala caritanikṛṣṭa jūṭadoṣaḥ, though his comment offers the option between this division and that found in Parab's text. Godabole, as also P. and LD., prefer the division found in Parab. That this is the intention of the author is made probable by the parallelism between khalacarita and sucarita-

caritam.

viii. 33°. Of course the palāśa and the kimśuka are the same; the blunder on Samsthānaka's part is like that found in the last line of i. 41. I do not believe that the author intends a pun on the name of the demon Palāśa, as P. and LD. say; Böhtlingk (p. 204) argues effectively against this view.

viii. 34. I have taken some liberties with this verse in my translation, in an effort to preserve something of the grim humor of this critical scene. I am afraid that it is rather risky to assume that the author, in using the name Dhundhumāra, plays on the other meaning of the word, namely the insect called indragopa.

viii. 35°. Parab's chāyā should read mriyasva garbhadāsi mriyasva. In Sanskrit, as in English, we lose the assonance of mala gabbhadāśi mala following śumala gabbhadāśi śumala in viii. 35°.

viii. 36. This verse and the next contain numerous difficulties. The second line means: "who (really) came to her death (kāla-) when, being in love, she came (thinking) to sport with him when he had come." In order to justify the accusatives of the first two lines, we must supply hatva, as the Calcutta commentary and JV. observe. In the fourth line, the chaya in Parab and Godabole renders nīśāśe by nihśvāsā, and it is this rendering which is represented by my translation; but in Stenzler and JV. the chaya has nihśvase, and that is of course what we should expect from the Prakrit form of the word. The phrase then means: "(Why do I boast of my strength of arm?) She dies merely at my breathing." The chaya in Parab, Godabole, and JV. takes amba to represent Sanskrit amba, nominative, and this is precisely what we should expect; amba or ambikā 'mother' is used as a term of endearment, so e. g. at viii. 1718. But the short final vowel of the Prakrit makes a difficulty, and this difficulty is not avoided by the reading of Stenzler's chāyā, ambasmarā.

viii. 37. The third line is desperate, so desperate that Regnaud does not attempt to translate it. Probably mādeva represents māte 'va (not mātāi 'va: Stenzler), as Parab's chāyā has it; the iva probably goes with drāupadī (drāupadīsadṛsī mātā, JV). We may tentatively translate the line: "my brother was disappointed of his honor, and my father, and my mother (who in this respect is) like that Drāupadī." This translation assumes the word-division śevāvañcida bhāduke, as Parab prints; but

the line seems nearly hopeless.

viii. 37°. This speech of the vita's is very strange indeed, and I do not see that the matter is helped by the reading pāda-yoḥ for pādapaḥ. The speech illustrates Bōhtlingk's excellent observation (Vorwort, p. i): "Als eine Eigenthumlichkeit ist . . . auch dieses hervorzuheben, dass er . . den Zuhörer oder Leser . . . auf bevorstehende wichtige Begebenheiten vorbereitet und dadurch die Ueberraschung zwar einigermaassen abschwächt, auf der anderen Seite aber auch die Neugier in hohem Grade reizt." But it seems as if this end were attained in the present case with unwonted awkwardness.

viii. 3718. For the expression, compare i. 300.

viii. 38. JV. takes dākṣiṇyodakavāhinī as an adjective modifying ratih and suggests that the 'own region' (svadeśa) is the south (dakṣiṇa), because it is well known that rivers run south. On the feminine form āśraye, see above, p. 420.

viii. 40. This matter is printed by Stenzler as prose, by the other editions as a verse; if it makes a verse, as seems most probable, the readings of the other three editions are nearer the intent of the author than those adopted by Stenzler, since these latter destroy the meter. The text is desperately bad. In the second line, the editions all read savodiam (or sabo-), but the explanations differ widely. Parab's chāyā has savodinam and P. says that a vodī is a coin of less value than a kārsāpana; Stenzler's chāyā reads pustim and JV.'s saposanam; Godabole's chāyā reads savestikam and LD. explains vestikā as meaning either 'turban' or 'loin-cloth'; in this explanation he agrees with the Calcutta commentary. One is tempted to prefer to all these readings and interpretations the reading of Stenzler's Ms. B.: śakodiam (sakotikam): in this case, Samsthanaka is made to say: "I'll give you wealth a hundred-fold, (I'll give you) a goldpiece, I'll give you a penny, (I'll give you) ten millions." In the third and fourth lines, my translation follows Parab's chaya, except that it is necessary to read samanyakam to agree with dosasthānam: "Let this heroism of mine be a cause of censure common to (all) men," a roundabout way of saying "Let the perpetrator of the deed remain unknown." But there is rather more authority for the reading of Godabole (with which JV. practically agrees): duśaddāna phalakkame = duhśabdānām phalakramah. Then the two lines mean: "Let this continued reward of evil words (due) to me be common to (all) men." The two readings thus give, at bottom, about the same sense.

viii. 42. I have taken jano 'yam in the ordinary sense of ayam janah: "I think myself unworthy, etc." JV. takes it to mean 'the average man' (sādhāraṇamānava), and the translators take it similarly; yaya likely they are right

tors take it similarly; very likely they are right.

viii. 43. -sampanne: voc. fem., JV.; loc. neut., Regnaud,

Böhtlingk.

viii. 43°. I understand annam as a Sanskrit anyām, modifying velām understood. Stenzler's chāyā has anyas (supply alamkāraḥ), the other editions have ājūā; yet Parab's punctuation seems to indicate that he understands the Prākrit as I do.

viii. 43°,11. As Böhtlingk points out (p. 205), we probably should read -kavodavāliāe (as in i. 51¹) instead of -padolikāe. JV. attempts to explain the reading of the Mss., but his attempt serves to confirm the suspicion that the Mss. are wrong: prāsādasya bṛhadaṭṭālikāyā bālāyām abhinavanirmitāyām agrapratolikāyām pradhānarathyāyām.

viii. 46. I have taken pattra in the meaning 'leaf' in each of its three occurrences in the verse; this seems to be the understanding of P., who says pattrany eva, 'like the leaves they are.' But the Calcutta commentary, LD., and JV. give to the words vistīrṇapattrani . . . pattranī 'va the meaning 'like birds whose wings are spread out'; it would be hard to find another instance of pattra meaning 'bird.' Böhtlingk takes a middle course in his translation: "diese ausgebreiteten Blätter regen sich, so meine ich, wie Federn hin und her." It is perhaps impossible to decide which interpretation is correct; the only thing that is certain is that there is a play on the word pattra.

viii. 46°. According to LD. and JV., the fact that Vasantasenā remembers the monk but does not remember her own benefaction to him, shows the nobility of her nature.

viii. 47. This matter (hattha... niccale) is printed by Parab as a verse; also by JV., who however gives it no verse-number. The nature of the matter (cf. note on iv. 29, above), and its position at the end of the act, make it a priori probable that it does form a verse. The text printed by Parab scans 15. 17: 12. 18; the last two lines form half of a regular arya. If we read, with Stenzler and Godabole, hatthaśañjadamuhaśañjada, we obtain the scheme 13. 17: 12. 18. Thus we have the correct number of syllabic instants, which are irregularly distributed in the first half of the verse. In spite of this irregularity, it seems most probable that we have to do with a stanza in the arya meter.

Act ix.

ix. 1. In the fourth line, the reading of Parab and Godabole does not scan correctly; if the first word is to be read gandhavvehi, it seems as if the second should be suvhidehim. This is the text reproduced in my translation; but I have taken gandhavvehi as the representative of Sanskrit gandharvaih, 'with gandharvic, well-turned limbs." The fact that the Gandharvas

are male creatures and the persons mentioned in the third line female, need not trouble us, as the blunder may be attributed to Samsthänaka's ignorance. The reading of Parab and Godabole is better supported than the gandhavve via suhidehim of Stenzler (with which JV. practically agrees). The latter reading also gives a good sense, if we may take suhitāih to mean subhūṣitāiḥ (JV.) or śobhitāiḥ (Calcutta commentary), or as the representative of sukhitāiḥ (Böhtlingk, page 205).

ix. 2. In Parab's text, khala- is apparently a misprint for khana-. I think it is better to take mukke (muktāh) in the sense of 'hanging loose' (bandhanād bhransitāh, JV.) than in

the sense of 'pearls' (Regnaud, Böhtlingk).

ix. 2¹. In kivinacestiam (bis) there is perhaps a pun; the word means of course 'a wretched business,' but also perhaps 'a worm's business,' with reference to the kīdaeṇa above. The possibility that kṛpaṇa may here mean 'worm' is increased by the reading kimiṇa- (apparently = kṛmiṇa-) given by four Mss. and by P.

ix. 3. In commenting on the third line, JV. says that the king's judgment is confused by the exaggerations of the two parties, that he is therefore likely to decide a case wrongly, and that then he is subject to the penalty set forth in Manu viii.

128 (disgrace and hell).

ix. 4. In the second line, I have translated as if nastā dhruvam were the beginning of a new principal clause, but I am not

at all certain that this is correct.

ix. 5. In the last line, dvārbhāve is puzzling. JV. takes it as a locative absolute, supplying sati, 'there being an expedient'; Böhtlingk interprets similarly. I have taken it as two words: 'a door (dvār, nom.) to truth,' but this is very doubtful. Godabole's Ms. K. has the reading dvābhyām vāi, which is much easier: '(his heart devoted to others' interests) in behalf of both parties (plaintiff and defendant)'.

ix. 531. For mallakkappamāṇāha, cf. note on viii. 281.

ix. 7. This verse is repeated from viii. 29, with nitaram for sutaram. Parab, Godabole, and JV. print sphītā for sphītāh; this perhaps indicates that the reading vipine (given by a majority of the Mss.) for suksetre was the original reading, and that suksetre has crept in from viii. 29.

ix. 7°. JV. explains the curious word pāasapiņdālakeņa thus: pāyasapiņdam dugdhapakvam annam paramānnam ity arthah,

tad rcchati prāpnotī 'ti tena pāyasānnalobhine 'ty arthaḥ: pāyasānnaprāptaye lobhād yathā kriyate tathā mayā 'pī 'ty arthaḥ.

- ix. 7°. With the Calcutta commentary, I take -sthāna in moghasthānayā as an abbreviation for alamkārasthāna; compare sunnāim āharanatthānāim in ii. 20°.
- ix. 11. I take ghoram asamsayam as a little clause by itself: 'the dreadful thing is certain.'
- ix. 14. P. seems to have read cintāmārga. I have followed LD. in taking dūta- to mean 'attorney.' In the third line -vāśaka- is doubtless used with a double meaning. In reference to the herons, it means 'screaming,' and in reference to court-officers, it means 'slanderers, pettifoggers.' LD. has vāśakāḥ, śabdam kurvāṇāḥ karṇejapāḥ piśunā eva; similarly JV., who says: yāśakāḥ śabdam kurvāṇā dhanapratāraṇārtham vacanacaturāḥ khalā eva. I have adopted the reading -ruciram, which seems better than Parab's -racitam.
- ix. 19. The verse is desperately hard, and no comment or translation is satisfactory. My translation aims to make sense, but does violence to the text. JV. makes the sense-connection between lines 2 and 3 by saying: cāṣāgrapakṣo hy upari vārivarṣaṇena malinībhavati tava mukham tu tadabhāve 'pi malinam dṛṣyata iti bhāvah. Accepting this, we may translate the verse thus: "You are not, like the wing-tip of the cāṣa, thoroughly wet by the waters of the clouds in the sky; (yet it seems so, because) this (accusation is) false—for (see!) this face of yours attains lacklusterness like the winter lotus." But this is sadly unsatisfactory.
- ix. 22. The same conceit of leaving the ocean bare of gems by reason of great riches occurs in the Meghadūta, in the verses following i. 31 (regarded by Mallinātha as spurious).
- ix. 23. The analysis which P. gives of the long compound is to be preferred to that of the other interpreters: pādaprahāreņa paribhava ākramaḥ sa eva vimānanā tayā baddhagurukavāirasya.
- ix. 24°. The present participle viluppantam (vilupyamanam) does not seem to correspond to the facts of the case; the reading viluppam (viluptam) given by some Mss., seems preferable.
- ix. 24°. Probably there is a little pun in lokavyavahārasya, which may mean 'the conduct of men,' or 'a law-suit in the world.' This I have tried to indicate in my translation.

ix. 29. The word paravyasanena causes difficulty. LD. (followed by Regnaud) interprets '(although beset) by terrible misfortune': parena vyasaneno 'palakṣito 'pi; similarly the Calcutta commentary. JV. interprets 'with mere childish amusements': parena kevalena vyasanena bālyasulabhena krīḍanena. Böhtlingk adopts this unusual meaning for vyasana, and accepts the alternative reading bata for para, which is mentioned by the Calcutta commentary and JV. I have taken paravyasanena to mean 'with the misfortune of another,' but this is certainly doubtful.

ix. 29°. The translators have, I think, missed the point of imassa. Of course, this masculine form cannot refer to Vasantasenā, in spite of the chāyā in Parab and JV. The little clause means: "it was right (for her) to give him the jewels (to stop his crying, LD) but not (for me) to receive them."

ix. 30. Compare ix. 38.

ix. 30°. There should be a mark of punctuation after hetubhūtah.

ix. 30'. I have taken anīso (which is not found in all the Mss.) to mean 'not master (of himself), mad'; but JV. explains it as aksamo daridra ity arthah. The Prākrit bhaṇḍaā may represent Sanskrit bhāṇḍa (chāyā in Stenzler, Godabole, and JV.) or bhaṇḍa (chāyā in Parab, and P.); if the former be intended, then kidajanadosabhaṇḍaā must be a compound, meaning 'receptacle of crimes imputed to people'; if the latter, we may take the expression as two words (or as a karmadhāraya; so P.) meaning 'imputer of crimes to people, and buffoon.' The latter seems preferable to me.

ix. 33. The last pāda is found also in Kumārasambhava ii.
 32. Whether this fact is or is not of importance in determining the relative dates of Kālidāsa and Śūdraka, I do not venture

to say.

ix. 35¹. I have taken the first two words as an impatient exclamation: I do not believe that we have a play on words, as LD. and Regnaud suggest. My view is perhaps supported by JV., who prints abharaṇāni ā-, without sandhi.

ix. 36. JV. and Böhtlingk takes the fourth pada to mean that the wishes of the speaker will fall to the ground (be disappointed) when the lashes fall on Carudatta; Wilson and I have understood the pada to mean that the lashes descend together

with (in accordance with) the wishes of the speaker. I think now that the former interpretation is the better; a similar play on the root pat is found in ix. 31.

ix. 38. Compare ix. 30. In the third pada, Parab's reading is excellent; but we must take strī ratnam as two words. Then the pada means: "a woman, and especially a jewel (of a woman)."

ix. 39'. As Böhtlingk points out (p. 209), the tti ought to stand at the end of the speech.

ix. 41'. Although LD. says that ambām refers to Cārudatta's-mother, it seems more probable that it refers to his wife, Rohasena's mother; for there is no reference elsewhere in the play to the mother of Cārudatta.

Act x.

- x. i. The difficulties of this verse are diminished if we can regard kālaṇa as the representative of the Sanskrit kāraṇām 'pain.' We may then translate: "What then! Do not consider (kalaya = vicāraya, JV.) the pain; being adepts in the new-fangled managing of executions and fetterings, we are skilful in cutting off heads and impaling in short order."
- x. 3. JV. explains raktagandha- by raktacandana-, and Regnaud's note (iv. 87) has the same suggestion. Böhtlingk takes -gandha- in the sense of 'trifle,' as above at viii. 22', 24''. I have supposed the word raktagandhānuliptam to contain a rather mixed, but striking, metaphor, 'anointed with the odor of blood.' Of these three interpretations, that of JV. and Regnaud is perhaps the best.
- x. 11². This speech is quoted at Daśarūpa i. 46 (ed. Parab). and at Sāhityadarpaņa 384; in both places there are many, but unimportant variants.
- x. 12. Quoted at Daśarūpa i. 46; ii. 4; Sāhityadarpaṇa 384, with two variants; line 1, yat for me; line 3, nidhana- for maraṇa-. The commentary on the Sāhityadarpaṇa passage explains nibidacāityabrahmaghoṣāih as follows: nibidāni lokāir ākīrṇāni yāni cāityāni: cāityam āyatanam tulye ity Amarah: pūjādyāyatanasthānāni tesu ye brahmaghoṣā vedavādās tāih.
- x. 12'. The reading udvījya can hardly be a mere blunder, as it is explained by P., but it is surely inferior to the udvīkṣya of the other texts.

VOL. XXVII.

x. 14. JV. reads asuvannamandanaam as one word, and explains it as an adverb 'without any golden ornament'; but this reading hurts the meter.

x. 17. Much better than the -bhojanam of all the editions is -bhājanam, conjectured by Böhtlingk (p. 209), and read by two

of Godabole's Mss.

x. 19. Stenzler and JV. are doubtless right in reading padicchidam (pratīṣṭam). JV. glosses the word with yathābhi-

lasitam.

x. 20. The first line is desperate. My translation is based on Parab's text, accepting P.'s explanation of pradeśāli by añgāni, and presupposes the following literal translation: "his limbs are parched (i. e. he is as good as dead); why need he conduct himself with bended head?" This is obviously most unsatisfactory. Somewhat better are the readings and suggestions of JV., who agrees in part with LD. and the Calcutta commentary. He reads: śukkhā vavadeśā śe kim paṇamia matthae na kāavvam and explains: asya cārudattasya vyapadeśāli kulanāmādayali śuskā luptāli? asya ca kim guṇādikam ity arthali praṇamya mastake na kartavyam? api tu sarvam eva praṇatyā śirodhāryam ity arthali: atha vā vyapadeśā vasantasenāvadhajanitāpavādāli śuskā mithyātvād āropitā ity arthali.

x. 25. I interpret the second line as follows: "in which this death is actually (api) a gain." In the fourth line, the reading tvayā of Stenzler and Godabole is better than the mayā of

Parab and JV. (but cf. the maya in x. 33).

x. 25¹; 28²; 29¹. For pāśādabālaggapadolikā, ef. note on viii. 43^{9,11}, above.

x. 26. Cf. x. 38.

x. 27. For the construction, see above, p. 420.

x. 31. It is possible to separate niskāraņopagata bāndhava, as Böhtlingk does, or, with JV., to take the word as a karma-

dhāraya.

x. 32°. I have followed Stenzler's chāyā and Böhtlingk in taking śañkhalena as the representative of Sanskrit śrñkhalena; but LD. and JV. translate it by sañkhalena (śañ-), which they explain to mean 'a drum-stick.'

x. 33'. There is nothing to show whether Carudatta here

repeats ix. 30 or ix. 38.

- x. 33*. In my translation, I have substituted the name Goha for its synonym Vīraka, as this is the only place where the latter is used.
- x. 35. I think that Böhtlingk is right (p. 211) in making veśam = Sanskrit veṣah. Cf. also JV., who says: veśa iva pariechada iva.
- x. 35°. The matter from utthanta- to attāṇaam is printed by Godabole and JV. as a verse. The nature of the material makes it probable that they are right, though our text (11. 17: 10. 17) does not quite fit the scheme of an āryā.
- x. 35¹⁹. In spite of the tradition, Böhtlingk is probably right in thinking (p. 212) that eaväsonnadä represents ekapäršvonnatä; but it does not seem necessary to substitute, with him, näuh (as at ii'. 20²) for vasumdharä.
- x. 35¹⁸. The phrase uttāne bhavia must mean 'lie flat,' not 'stehe gerade' (Böhtlingk) or 'tenez-vous bien raide' (Regnaud). The word uttāna means 'supine,' not 'erect;' besides, the erect position would be unnatural for the operation proposed. Then, at x. 40¹, Cārudatta stands up (sahaso 'tthāya), which he could not do if he were already erect; and Vasantasenā, who had fallen on his breast at x. 37¹, rises (utthāya) at x. 40¹.
 - x. 38. Cf. x. 26.
- x. 41. Here vidyā means 'a spell for bringing the dead to life' (LD., JV.), i. e. vidyā sañjīvanī, as it is called in the Mahābhārata.
- x. 43. It is interesting to note that Jīmūtavāhana, in the fourth act of the Nāgānanda, uses the red marriage garments as the insignia of death. Perhaps this passage and Mrcch. x. 43 stand in some connection with each other; if so, we have a suggestion for the placing of the Mrcchakatika.
- x. 46. Very likely there is a pun in the word śesabhūtām; the word may mean 'last,' and also 'being sacrificial flowers.'
- x. 47. Stenzler's reading surareh is supported by only one Ms., so that the reading balareh is doubtless correct. LD., JV., and the Calcutta commentary explain vasudhādhirājyam as a bahuvrīhi; 'in which there is sovereignty over the whole world.' The last half of the verse means then: "he has obtained the entire kingdom of his enemy, implying sovereignty over the world, like the kingship of Indra."

x. 471. Böhtlingk suggests (p. 213) that we read ayi for api (apikāro 'tra praśne, JV.).

The reading nirikse is surely better than niriksye.

The words atha va should be printed as part of the text, as in the editions of Steuzler and Godabole.

x. 51². The authorities read without exception tatrabhavan;

but it seems as if we must change it to atrabhavan.

x. 53'. I take pāurāh, with the other editions, as part of the

stage-direction.

x. 54°-57°. For the sake of completeness, I give a translation of Nīlakantha's interpolation, which may be inserted between lines 23 and 24 on page 174 of my translation.

(Loud outcries are heard behind the scenes.)

Voices behind the scenes. See! The wife, the lady wife of noble Carudatta thrusts back her little son, who clings at every step to her garment's hem. The tearful bystanders would prevent her, yet she mounts the blazing pyre.

Śarvilaka. (Listens and looks toward the back of the stage.) Ah, Candanaka! what does this mean, Candanaka? (Enter

Candanaka.)

Candanaka. Do you not see, sir? A great crowd has gathered to the south of the Royal Palace. The wife, the lady wife of noble Carudatta thrusts back her little son, who clings at every step to her garment's hem. The tearful bystanders would prevent her, yet she mounts the blazing pyre. I said to her: "Madam, you must not act too hastily. The noble Carudatta lives." But when the heart is full of sadness, who will listen, who will believe?

Carudatta. (In distress.) Oh, my beloved! what would

you do, while I yet live? (He looks up and sighs.)

Although thy life upon the earth, My virtuous wife, seem little worth, Yet joy in heaven thou canst not find, If thou dost leave thy lord behind.

55

(He swoons.)

Sarvilaka. What madness is this?

Yonder we needs must be so soon, And here her husband lies in swoon; Alas! we must confess it plain, That all our efforts are in vain.

56

Vasantasenā. Oh, sir, come to yourself. Go and bring her back to life. Otherwise a calamity will be begotten of this want of steadfastness.

Cārudatta. (Comes to himself and rises hastily.) Oh, my beloved, where are you? Give me answer.

Candanaka. Follow me, sir. (All move about. Enter Carudatta's wife, as described; Rohasena, who clings to the hem of her garment; Maitreya; and Radanika.)

Wife. (Tearfully.) Let go, my child. Do not hinder me. I am fearful lest I hear of ill that happens to my lord. (She rises, frees the hem of her garment, and moves toward the pyre.)

Rohasena. Oh, mother, think of me! I cannot live without you. (He runs up, and seizes again the hem of her garment.)

Maitreya. The sages declare it a sin for you, a Brahman's wife, to mount the pyre without your husband's body.

Wife. Better to commit a sin than to hear of ill that happens to my lord.

Śarvilaka. (Looks ahead.) She is near the flame. Hasten, hasten! (Cūrudatta does so.)

Wife. Radanikā, you must support my child, while I do what I purpose.

Radanikā. (Mournfully.) I too shall do what I have learned from my mistress.

Wife. (Turning to Maitreya.) Then you must support him, sir.

Maitreya. (Impetuously.) That your purpose may bear fruit, a Brahman must take the lead in this action. And so I shall precede you.

Wife. They both refuse me! (She embraces Rohasena.)
My child, you must care for yourself, that you may give us the
sesame and the water of sacrifice. Of what use are wishes,
when one is gone! (Sighing.) For my lord will not care for
you.

Carudatta. (Hears the words and hastens forward.) Yes, I will care for my boy. (He raises Rohasena in his arms, and clasps him to his breast.)

Wife. (Discovers him.) A miracle! I hear the voice of my lord. (She looks more closely. Joyfully.) Thank heaven! It is my lord himself. Now heaven be praised! Rohasena. (Perceives his father. Joyfully.) Oh, oh! It is my father that embraces me. (To his mother.) Mother, now you are happy. Father will care for me. (He throws his arms about Cārudatta.)

Carudatta. (To his wife.)

While he thou lovest more than breath
Was yet reprieved from jaws of death,
Whereto this mad emprize?
Before the sun sinks in the west,
Why are the lotus' petals prest
Upon her sleeping eyes?

57

Wife. My lord, it is just because she is so thoughtless that she is kissed.

Māitreya. (Discovers Cārudatta. Joyfully.) Hurrah! These eyes see my friend. What power a faithful wife enjoys! The mere purpose to enter the fire brings a reunion with her love. (To Cārudatta.) Victory, victory to my friend!

Carudatta. Come, Maitreya! (He embraces him.)

Radanikā. What a wonderful providence! Sir, I salute you. (She falls at Cārudatta's feet.)

Cărudatta. (Lays his hand upon her.) Rise, Radanikā! (He helps her to rise.)

Wife. (Perceives Vasantasenā.) Thank heaven! My blessèd sister.

Vasantasenā. Now am I blest indeed. (They embrace.) Śarvilaka. Thank heaven! You live, with all your friends. Cārudatta. Yes, through your gracious aid.

x. 544. On pade, JV. says: pade pratipada ity arthah.

x. 56'. On bhinnattanena, JV. has: bhinnatvena pṛthaktvena: tad uktam Uśanasā yathā: pṛthak citim samāruhya na viprā gantum arhati: anyāsām eva nārīnām strīdharmo 'yam parah smṛtah iti.

x. 57° . We should expect the dual: tāu cāṇḍālāu . . . bhayatām.

x. 59. Under stress of meter, I have omitted the words kāńś cin nayaty ākulān, which mean 'keeps some in suspense,' and applies, like the other expressions of the first two lines, both to people and to buckets. The Buddhistic Rule Against Eating Meat.—By E. Wash-Burn Hopkins, Professor in Yale University, New Haven, Conn.

The fact asserted in Mr. H. Fielding Hall's People at School (1906) that, although in the old days "it was immoral to take life, wicked to eat meat and connive at butchery," it is now the custom for Burmese Buddhists to do as they like in regard to eating ("Every one eats meat, even the monks," p. 257), is explained by the author as a new departure, due to the stimulating effect of the presence in Burma of the British beefeater. Is it not, in reality, a reversal in favor of a rule of greater freedom? Perhaps it is true that the Burman has but lately found out for himself that the "religion of Necessity" is better than the religion of Buddha as hitherto understood, for a progressive Burman may have to eat well to compete with British energy; but it is matter of interest to inquire just how strict in ancient times was the law against eating meat.

The great Protestant of India was no formalist. According to the Vinaya, which seems rather to reflect the Master's attitude than really to give his words as it pretends to do, Buddha was perpetually harassed by imbecile friars, whose childish questions he always answered in a spirit of liberality and common sense. Even later works show that to observe the spirit and not the letter was the Buddhistic ideal. What is said of verse may be applied to law,

attham hi natho saranam avoca na bhyanjanam lokavidu mahesi,

"The all-wise Lord declared that salvation lies in the spirit and not in the letter" (Comm. Khuddaka Pātha, v). Thus, for example, the general rule against suicide emanated from the view that a saint ought to remain on earth as a good example; yet, in special circumstances, Buddha is represented as approving of suicide, as in the case of the Elder Godhika. Here it is only the Evil One who objects to the act, on the ground that to cut one's own throat argues a perfected saint (one indifferent

to life), and that it is undesirable for the Evil One thus to lose

possession of the good Elder.1

So also the early Church, in the case of killing and eating, appears to have been less strict than the later. The later Brahmanic law, like that of the Jains, was very particular in regard to these points. Except for sacrifice, to kill no sentient thing and to eat no meat were absolute priestly laws. Even starvation was barely an excuse for breaking these regulations, though the class that did as it pleased despite the priests was reluctantly conceded the right to hunt wild animals, and the priest even found mythological reasons which made it meritorious for a 'king's man' to kill deer as well as men. People outside the pale of respectability, fishers, fowlers, tanners, etc., were also contemptuously permitted to remain in their odor of non-sanctity. But for a priest even necessary agriculture was deprecated, 'because the plough hurts living things.' That this 'noninjury' rule was Buddhistic in origin is contrary to the evidence. Even the oldest Brahmanic law, which is at least as venerable as any Buddhistic literature, inculcates the general moral rule of doing as one would be done by in the matter of injuring, killing, and eating one's brother-animal.

Nevertheless, there are traces of a condition of things much freer than this in the Brahmanic circle of a still earlier day. In Āit. Br. iv. 3, man is said to eat, as well as rule over, cattle: purusah pasusu pratisthito 'tti cāi'nān adhi ca tisthati (on pasu as implying cattle, cf. vi. 20). It is a Brahman priest who says that he eats beef if it is off the shoulder (? amsalam, Sat. Br. iii. 1. 2. 21). The common people are said at the same period to be omophagous, āmād (Kāṇva text, ib. iv. 5. 2. 16), and the king has at least no scruples in regard to wearing leather sandals, vārāhyā upānahā, ib. v. 4. 3. 19. Leather fastenings are also alluded to in Āit. Br. v. 32. Brahman butchers are well known, even in the Buddhistic period. The formal law-books permit the eating of many animals, birds, and fishes, although they denounce the sin of eating meat (see particularly Gāutama,

¹ For the rule, see the Pātimokkha and Rhys-Davids on the Questions of Milinda; for the case of Godhika, Warren, HOS 3, p. 381.

² Compare Jātaka No. 495 (Fick, Soc. Glied, p. 141). Compare also the casual allusion to a butcher-shop in Jāt. No. 880. In Jāt. No. 423 a Brahman lives by hunting deer.

xvii, Bāudh. xii, and Manu v). But perhaps casual allusions reveal more than do the law-books. Convincing, for example, is Tāṇḍya Br. xvii. 13. 9: "Clothed in a fresh garment he comes up from the initiation-bath and during four months neither eats meat nor has intercourse with a woman." That is as much as to say, when not in a state of special purity one is expected to eat meat. Compare Sat. Br. x. 1. 4. 13.

Similarly, although the Buddhist accepts and further promulgates, in his own decrepit dialect, the law "not to kill and not to cause killing," it is evident that the law, if not late, was at first not taken very strictly. Possibly, just as the Brahmanic classes ('castes') were recognized, but without the Brahmanic rigidity, which did not usually distinguish between letter and spirit, so Brahmanic morality was, as an inheritance, not disregarded; but at the same time it was not so narrowly interpreted. Among the many things which, according to the Buddhists' scriptures, "people" (that is, non-Buddhistic people) objected to in the conduct of the Buddhists was disregard of the life of sentient beings. According to the same indisputable testimony, people once found a Buddhist friar killing-of all animals-a calf, and several times they complained that "followers of the Buddha" hurt and killed living things. Even as an artistic background to the introduction of stricter rules, these tales, preserved in the Buddhists' own books, can scarcely be supposed to be made of whole cloth. There was some reason for the tale and for the introduction of the more stringent rule. And the reason was probably that, while Buddha really endorsed the rule Na hanaye na ghātaye, "Let one kill not, nor cause killing," neither he nor the early Buddhists interpreted it so strictly as the Brahman was inclined to do. It is very seldom, for example, that we find the addition "nor approve of others killing" (Dhammika Sutta). To the Buddhist of the early days, meat was not forbidden, though it was a work of supererogation to abstain from it. Meat was a delicacy and it was not proper for an abstemious friar to indulge in any delicacies. On the other hand, to take a vow not to eat meat was unusual; it was distinctly an extra effort in 'acquiring merit.' The house-holder is

[.] The Patimokkha prohibits meat and fish merely on the ground that they are delicacies. The rules for novices contain no injunction against eating meat. On the early usage among the friars, see Professor Rhys-Davids' Buddhism, p. 164.

distinguished from the ascetic in this, that the latter has no wife and does not destroy life, while the former has a wife and does destroy life (Muni Sutta). The rule of the 'King of Glory' is not a narrow one against meat; it is one of extreme liberality, 'Eat as you have been accustomed to eat.' There is a whole sermon devoted to the expansion of the text, 'defilement comes not from eating meat but from sin' (Amagandha Sutta), which, as it seems to me, rather implies that meat was pretty generally eaten (though the practice was looked upon by the stricter sort as culpable) than that it was not eaten at all. Buddha himself (perhaps) died of eating pork, the flesh of a wild boar, an idea so abhorrent to later Buddhism that the words sukaramaddava, 'boar-tender' (-loin ?) was interpreted either as a sauce or as a vegetable eaten by a boar; some said bamboosprouts, other said a kind of mushroom, although no sauce or vegetable is known by the name of 'boar-tender.' 2

It is in the light of such facts as these that the oft-repeated rule "not to keep a store of raw meat" is to be interpreted. The rule is generally given in connection with other purely sumptuary regulations, such as not to keep a store of raw rice, and far from seeming to prohibit meat it appears to imply its use, the real prohibition being not against meat (any more than against rice), but against the possession of a superfluous store. Thus in the Gandhāra Jātaka, No. 406, it is said that a store of salt and sugar even for one day, punadiva, used to be condemned, but now Buddhists hoard even for the third day.

Notable examples of freedom in respect of eating meat are to be found in the Mahāvagga, which gives other illustrations of liberality. Thus, as to the other, we are told that, in the northern country, for Buddhists to bathe more than once a fortnight is a sin, but in the southern country they may bathe more frequently, because it is the custom of the country. Here there is no climatic necessity for the change, since what is called

¹ Literally, "Ye shall eat as has been eaten" (Mahāsudassana Sutta).

² Compare the Questions of Milinda, iv. 3. 22 and the discussion as to bamboo, mushrooms, or sauce, Sacred Books of the East, xxxv, p. 244. Boar flesh is common village-meat. Compare what the pigs say in Jāt. No. 388: maṁsatthāya hi posiyāmase, "we are fattened for our flesh" (p. 289), and further references below, p. 462. Still, some plant-names begin with 'boar-,' and Buddha ought to have the benefit of the doubt.

'northern' and 'southern' is practically in the same clime. A still better case is afforded by the similar regulation as to coverlets. In the northern and middle part of the country, because it is there customary to have coverlets made of vegetable matter, the Buddhists are to follow this custom; but when they go south, where (as in Ujjain) people use animal skins as coverlets, there they may use animal skins-a tacit condonation of the slaughter of animals. As a medicinal remedy the Buddhist may take intoxicating liquors' and the flesh and blood and fat of bears, alligators, swine, and asses. But a rule found in the same work, vi. 31. 14, goes much further than this and really gives the gist of the whole matter in permitting the use of meat, if not killed for the express purpose of feeding the Buddhist. The same rule holds as to fish. The Buddhists may eat it if they "do not see, do not hear, do not suspect" that the fish was caught especially for their use (ibid.). Elephants' flesh and that of horses may not be eaten in time of famine, but this is because they are parts of the "attributes of royalty"; 2 nor that of dogs and snakes, but because such meat is disgusting. Absolutely forbidden at such a time is only the flesh of human beings' and of other carnivora (ib. vi. 23. 9 ff.).

In regard to hurting sentient things, Brahmanism holds theoretically that even trees, plants, and grasses are kinds of animals. They differ only in being stable (fixed) instead of mobile; but a long argument which I have cited elsewhere from the Great Epic shows that plants really see, hear, feel, and smell, as well as possess the more obvious sense of touch, and that, therefore, they are living, conscious things, endowed like other animals

² Compare Jātaka No. 397, p. 322, assā nāma rājabhogā, "horses are kings' property."

² A century after Buddha's death the Buddhist church (according to tradition, Cullavagga, xii. 1) discussed the question whether it was permissible to drink unfermented toddy. The Buddhist was a teetotaler, as was (ordinarily) the Brahman priest, but in this regard the church as a whole appears to have been much stricter than the orthodox Hindus (not of the priestly caste), who have always been addicted to intoxicants. Even Brahman priests, north of the Nerbudda, were rumdrinkers. Bāudh. I. 2. 4.

³ Cannibalism has left its trace in India in the stories of flesh-eating Yakkas and Piśācas, natives of the Gilgit region (Dr. Grierson, in JRAS. Jan. 1906; Jātaka, 537).

with their own part of the anima mundi. This, sociologically, is the older view as contrasted with that of the Buddhists, who hold that a tree, for example, is 'conscious' only as containing a living being (a dryad). Plants in themselves possess only one organ of sense (feeling). So there is naturally less horror of injury to plant-life (as plant) among Buddhists than among non-Buddhists (the Brahmans and their followers),1 though rebirth as a plant is more a theoretical possibility than an actual probability to both parties of believers in Karma. According to a rather late compendium of heresies, the Brahmajāla Sutta, the Buddhist recluses, despite the tightening bonds of conventional friarhood, still continued to injure growing plants, though it was wrong to do so, as it was wrong "to accept raw meat" and to kill living things. This reveals that raw meat was accepted often enough to make it worth while to animadvert upon the practice. But even this Sutta (like the rules for novices) does not prohibit the eating of meat.

In the Edicts of Asoka there are several injunctions against cruelty, but it is ordered merely that (even for sacrifice) no animals be killed "in future," with a recommendation to respect the sacredness of life. 'Yet it is evident from the Fifth Pillar Edict that the killing of animals was not unusual. Certain animals in the twenty-seventh year of Asoka's reign were made exempt from slaughter, as were "all quadrupeds which are not eaten or otherwise utilized by man," a clear intimation that previously the slaughter of animals was not uncommon and that "the more complete abstention from injury to animate creatures and from slaughter of living beings" was, as proclaimed in the Seventh Pillar Edict, brought about by Asoka, that is, a couple of centuries after Buddha's death.2

¹ There is, unfortunately, no common name for the Brahmanized horde as there is for the followers of Buddha. I have sometimes for the horde used 'orthodox,' as the Brahmans (i. e. the priests) use heterodox ('unbelievers') especially of the Buddhists; but the orthodox were any-

thing but a united fold, though they called themselves all, as against Buddhists, 'believers.' On plants as 'having only one organ,' see Mahā-

² The Edicts, however, are not for Buddhists alone but for all the realm and in this particular may be aimed against Brahmanic (now heterodox! see the last note) rather than Buddhistic practices. Nevertheless, as no party distinction is made it may be presumed that the Buddhists also needed a stricter rule. In connection with Brahmanic practices, it must be noticed that beef-eating in the Mahābhārata, though common, is confined to ceremonial (sacrificial) consumption.

The Jatakas contain numerous instances revealing great freedom in respect of flesh-eating. For example, the Bodhisat as Śakka, in the Kumbha-Jātaka, forbids the use of intoxicants, but permits the enjoyment of flesh (mainsodanain sappipäyäsain bhuñja; No. 512, p. 20). So in Jat. No. 528, p. 235, the Bodhisat as a mendicant, mahābodhiparibbājako, cat the flesh of a monkey, makkatamainsam khāditvā, and uses its skin as a robe, though only in order to inculcate a lesson. In its Sauskritized form, in the Jātakamāla, this monkey appears as an illusion (perhaps because of the audience; much as the "fatted calf" is discreetly omitted from another parable in India at the present day) and the Bodhisat merely "removes a skin made by himself" and then wears it, after causing the flesh to disappear (cārmā'panīya śesam antardhāpayām āsa; sa tannirmittain vānaracarma bibhrat, etc. HOS. 1, p. 147, l. 19). That the deer is a warrior's natural food is admitted in a casual remark addressed to a priest, Jat. No. 483, p. 273, annam migo brāhmaņa khattiyassa; but though a king hunts it is meritorious to renounce the sport and devote oneself to charity. In No. 504, p. 437, the king hunts not only deer but wild boar, migasūkarādayo vadhitvā, and eats broiled venison, angārapakkam migamamsam. In No. 315, the Bodhisat gets a wagon-load of venison as a gift; but he takes the hunter from his cruel occupation, luddaka-kamma. In No. 12, a king is persuaded to stop killing deer and all other animals. To eat the flesh of a golden peacock, moro, which gives eternal youth and immortality (ib. 159 and 491) is perhaps too great a temptation to allow of its being cited as an example; yet the peacock was not forbidden food either to the Brahman (Baudh. I. 12. 7) or to the pre-Asokan Buddhist (v. note, loc. cit. S.B.E). Jat. Nos. 451 and 496 reveal that meat-eating is almost a matter of course, even on the part of the Bodhisat, who in No. 199 eats beef, gomamsam; while the forest-ascetic (No. 496, p. 371, st. 280) says "I eat meat," just as he speaks of eating jujubes, lotus, etc.: sākam bhisam madhum mamsam badarāmalakāni ca, tāni ābhatva bhuñjāmi atthi me so pariggaho. In the introduction to the Sulasa Jataka, No. 419, we have a scene depicting a pleasure-garden, where thieves and servants indulge in fish, flesh, and intoxicants, macchamamsasuradini, which shows the vulgar popularity of fleshfood. But in No. 436 a noble lady of Benares is fed on ghee,

rice, fish, and flesh (p. 527, l. 22) by the demon who would woo her. Compare No. 434, where meat is eaten as a dainty. Large bags of leather, 'mahante cammapasibbake, to hold money, are referred to in No. 336. Leather is used to make chariotharness (No. 22) and the clothing of a mendicant, cammasāṭako paribbājako, in No. 324. Roast pig is used to celebrate a marriage-feast (Nos. 30 and 286) and roast lizard is recognized as good food (in No. 333); though it is a false Buddhist ascetic, dussīlatāpaso, who in Nos. 138 and 325 is fond of such diet. But crow's meat is sent (as earnest of better) to the Bodhisat by the king in No. 214, and in No. 220 the scholiast tells a story (to illustrate a Jātaka verse) which implies that a king regularly ate meat (animals might be slaughtered in Benares any day except on fast-days). No. 241, p. 245, even notes the occasion on which, according to tradition, men who had eaten all the fresh meat they could, first began to dry it: tasmim kila kale vallūrakaranam udapādīti vadanti. A very good example of the casual, matter-of-course way in which meat-eating is referred to will be found in Jātaka No. 106 (p. 417), wherein a young man is advised by his father, the Bodhisat, not to marry, simply because he will have to run errands for his wife: "When she wants to eat fish or meat or has need of ghee or salt or rice, etc." (and sends you to do her errands), yadā macchamamsādīni vā khāditukāmā bhavissati sappiloņataņdulādīhi vā pan' assā attho bhavissati. Here the worldly fat girl is imagined as eating meat as naturally as salt, etc.

The whole matter of meat-eating is epitomized in the verse ascribed to the Bodhisat in the Telovado Jataka (No. 246):

bhuñjamāno pi sappañño na pāpena upalippati, that is, according to the context, if one who has divine wisdom eats fish or meat, even when he knows it is prepared for him, he does no wrong.² Not meat-eating per se, not the fact that meat

¹ The common use of leather, as Prof. Bloomfield remarked when this paper was read, has been recently exemplified by excavations made in the Northern deserts. Leather nooses are made in Jät. 206 (p. 153).

² In the exaggerated language of the Bodhisat, one may even eat the flesh of the donor's wife or child. Only the slayer is sinful, not the 'eater. The comment is: samamsakam bhattam adasi . . . samano Gotamo jānam uddissa-katam mamsam bhuñjati, "He gave meat-food . . . Gotama the ascetic knowingly eats meat prepared especially for him." Buddha here accepts in full the precepts of the Bodhisat.

was prepared especially for the eater, not even the fact that the latter knows of the circumstances, makes the eater guilty of sin. But he must eat with no evil in the heart, no indulgence of appetite. With the same liberality, which distinguishes the ethics of Buddha from that of his ascetic rivals, we find the rule that no evil Karma attaches to an act of unintentional wrongdoing, as laid down in the Kuru-dhamma of Jātaka No. 276 (p. 377), acetanakam kammam na hoti, the Brahmanic rule being that there must be expiation for unintentional as for intentional sin. Devadatta, Buddha's rival, permitted no eating of flesh-meat; Buddha permitted it with restrictions as to the spirit in which it was eaten. In other words, early Buddhism was opposed to this form of asceticism as to other austerities, which in themselves are valueless.

The great distinction between killing and eating may seem rather pharisaical, but it existed. To kill an animal, to be butcher, fowler, or fisher, was wrong, and to connive at slaughter in order to gratify appetite was also wrong.' But when the beast had been killed without prior connivance on the part of the Buddhist the flesh might be accepted and eaten. The early Buddhist seems to have thought that, as the animal was dead anyway, he might as well make use of it and did not trouble his conscience with questions of 'tainted' offerings. If uncommonly ascetic he might refuse it as being a delicacy, but not because meat as meat constituted sinful diet. Probably the later accession of Brahmanical converts tended to the greater strictness of the Buddhist in this regard, until he came to say

^{&#}x27;Compare the passage (cited by Mr. Rouse at this place in his translation) from Hardy's Manual, p. 327: "Those who take life are in fault, but not the persons who eat the flesh. My priests [in contrast with those of Devadatta] have permission to eat whatever is customary to eat in any place or country, so that it be done without the indulgence of appetite, or evil desire." The Cullavagga on this point, vii. 3. 14, mentions only fish, but the contention is the same.

¹ Compare with this No. 528 (p. 287): akāmakaraņiyasmim kuv-idha pāpena lippati. For the Brahmanic rule, see JRAS. July, 1906, p. 584.

³ See the Majjhima Nikāya, pp. 77-8, for a catalogue of useless austerities.

^{&#}x27;Compare Jat. No. 506 (p. 458), where the king-snake refuses to eat frogs especially killed for him, with the idea "n'esa mam nissaya maressatīti" (na khādati), "not for my sake shall he kill."

with St. Paul 'If eating meat my brother do offend I will eat no more meat.' The theory of transmigration had, I imagine, little to do with the matter either with Buddhists or with Brahmans; though Buddha admits that a man may be reborn as an animal, for, in speaking of the death of a perfected saint, he couples together, as the fruit of such saintliness, the destruction of "hell and rebirth as an animal." The Jatakas, too, recognize man's rebirth as a beast, but these are not of the earliest Buddhistic era, and, generally speaking, the primitive Buddhist is reborn as man and, if not, he is more likely to reappear as an unfathered divinity in consequence of virtue than as an animal in consequence of evil.1 At any rate, man's rebirth as an animal (with a possible cannibalism) is never suggested as a reason why a Buddhist should not eat meat, although the Brahmanic view was that the animal later would eventually take revenge by eating (in another life) the former eater. Yet even here the idea is not that one should abstain from flesh through fear of eating a reincarnated relative.

To take life, in distinction from eating meat, results in going to hell or in rebirth either as an animal, a ghost, pettivisaye, a demon, asurakāye, or a human being of short life, appāyukasainvattanikam (hotī ti, 'said the Bodhisat'), Jūt. 55 (p. 275).

On the knotty question as to how a future Buddha could be born as an animal, cf. Jātakamāla xxxiii. st. 3. Despite his sufficient wisdom dharmasañjñi 'pi, he had acquired "bits of (evil) Karma," karmaleśāns tāns tān samāsādya, which reduced him to a beast. The Bodhisat himself explains rebirth in animal form as due to neglect in a previous life to perform good works (kusalakammassa akattatā), as he says Jāt. 81 (p. 205, lines 1 and 7, to Sujātā): tvam pana kusalam akatvā tiracchānayoniyam nibbattā. The same question arises in regard to the sins committed by Bodhisattas, such as reverting to sensuality (Jat. 251), keeping and knocking down his wife (No. 199), seducing a girl (No. 62), or even leading a band of robbers. In the last case the Jataka-maker ascribes such faults rather vaguely "to the stars," nakkhattadosena, Jāt. No. 279 (p. 389), apparently forgetful of the Bodhisat's own words, kim karissanti tārakā (No. 49, Nakkhatta-Jāt.). Rather an interesting statement is made in Jat. 431 (p. 499), to the effect that on some (unexplained) occasions, ekaccesu thanesu, Bodhisats may destroy life, commit adultery, and drink intoxicants, surā; but they may not tell deceitful lies, musāvādo, which destroy the reality of things. Truth is the highest virtue. In mediaeval Sk. literature abstention from meat is a sign of virtue, as in the Hitopadesa, where, more specifically, eating meat "on the Lord's day" (1. 3) is unlawful.

PROCEEDINGS

OF THE

AMERICAN ORIENTAL SOCIETY,

AT ITS

MEETING IN NEW HAVEN, CONN.

1906.

The annual meeting of the Society was held in New Haven, Conn., on Tuesday and Wednesday of Easter week, April 17th and 18th, in the Library of the Classical Club, in Phelps Hall.

The following members were present at one or more of the sessions:

Allen, F. S.	Carus	Jackson, A. V. W.	Morris, Miss	
Allen, Miss	Currier	Jackson, J. D.	Müller	
Arnold, W. R.	Gottheil	Jastrow	Oertel	
Barton	Gray	Jewett	Palmer	
Blake	Grieve, Miss L. C. G.	Lanman	Quackenbos	
Blodgett	Haas	Lilley	Ropes	
Bloomfield'	Harper	Lyon	Torrey	
Bolling	Haskell	Moore, G. F.	Toy	
Brown	Hock	Moore, J. H.	Van Name	
Campbell	Hopkins	Moore, Mrs. G. F.	Ward, W. H.	

The first session began on Tuesday morning at eleven o'clock, with President Gilman in the chair.

The minutes of the last annual meeting, held in Springfield, Mass., April 27th and 28th, 1905, were read in abstract by the Recording Secretary, having already been printed in the twenty-sixth volume of the Society's Journal.

The Committee of Arrangements, through Professor Hopkins, presented its report in the form of a printed programme. Professor Torrey announced that the Graduates' Club extended its privileges to the members of the Society during their stay in New Haven; that a luncheon would be given by the New Haven members of the Society on Wednesday at one o'clock,

VOL. XXVII.

to the men, at the Graduates' Club, while the ladies in attendance on the meeting would be entertained at the same time, at the Country Club, by Mrs. Hopkins and Miss Whitney; and that arrangements had been made for a dinner on Wednesday evening at half past seven, at the Tontine Hotel.

The succeeding sessions of the Society were appointed for Tuesday and Wednesday afternoons at half past two o'clock,

and for Wednesday morning at half past nine.

The Corresponding Secretary, Professor E. W. Hopkins,

reported as follows:

Letters of acceptance have been received from all those elected to membership at the last Meeting. Greetings were sent to Dr. James C. Hepburn and a reply received.

In response to an invitation from the Philosophical Society to send a delegate to represent this Society at Philadelphia during the Franklin Bicentenary exercises, President Gilman consented, at the Secretary's request, to act as our representative.

In accordance with the order of the Directors, the Journal of

the Society has been copyrighted.

The Ethnological Survey P. I. has been added to the list of

exchanges.

The death of the following members of the Society was reported:

HONORARY MEMBERS.

Professor Jules Oppert. Professor Friedrich von Spiegel.

CORPORATE MEMBERS.

Mr. Clarence H. Clark. Dr. P. L. Armand de Potter. Samuel Fales Dunlap. President William Rainey Harper. Rev. Lauren P. Wolfe.

MEMBER OF THE SECTION FOR THE HISTORICAL STUDY OF RELIGIONS.

Professor George S. Goodspeed.

CORRESPONDING MEMBER.

Rev. Joseph Edkins.

Tributes were paid to Professor Oppert, by Professor Gottheil; to President Harper, by Professor Toy; and to Professor Spiegel, by Professor Jackson.

The report of the Treasurer, Professor F. W. Williams, was

read by Mr. J. D. Jackson.

VIII.

IX. X. Cash on hand.

RECEIPTS AND DISBURSEMENTS BY THE TREASURER OF THE AMERICAN ORIENTAL SOCIETY FOR THE YEAR ENDING DECEMBER 31, 1905.

The Treasurer in presenting his report makes mention of the fact that he has been obliged again this year to draw upon the reserves of the Society by withdrawing \$500 to meet the cost of the annual volume from the accumulated interest of the Cotheal Publication Fund. The Society in order to get upon a safe basis should either increase its income or reduce its present expenditure by about three hundred dollars annually.

RECEIPTS.

2100011 201	
Balance from old account, Dec. 31, 1904, Dues (179) for 1905	\$ 772.53
\$1,168.2 120.3 1	6 8 6 1 4
	\$2,329.96
EXPENDITURES.	
T., M. & T. Co., printing vol. XXV ¹¹ " vol. XXVI 779.7 " paper 87.7 " sundry printing 36.4 Binding 21.8 Library cards and stamp 18.7 Subvention to Orient. Bibliographie 95.4 Honoraria to editors 200.0 Librarian, postage and express 20.8 Treasurer, " 19.1 Balance to general account 482.7	98 44 00 55 88 00 88
STATEMENT.	1000
1904 I. Bradley Type Fund (N. H. Savings Bank)	\$2,297.44 1,000.00 1,950.00 300.00 5.52 10.50 69.63

\$6,037.32 \$6,046.25

67.68

The report of the Auditing Committee, Mr. J. D. Jackson and Mr. A. P. Stokes, was presented by Mr. Jackson, and is as follows: April 16th, 1906.

In the absence of my colleague, Mr. Anson Phelps Stokes, Jr., I have made the audit of the accounts of the American Oriental Society and hereby certify that I have examined the account book of the Treasurer of the society and have found the same correct, and that the foregoing

statement is in conformity therewith. I have also compared the bills and vouchers and statement of balances

accompanying the same and have found them to be correct.

JOHN DAY JACKSON.

Auditor for the Society.

The Librarian, Professor Hanns Oertel, presented his report, as follows:

REPORT OF THE LIBRARIAN.

In the past winter foundations were laid on the University Campus for a new building planned as the beginning of an eventual complex of University library buildings. It immediately adjoins the present Chittenden Library and will occupy the space between the latter and the Old University Library. The new building covers some fifty thousand odd square feet, will accommodate at least four hundred thousand books and will also contain the executive offices of the librarians and a number of consultation rooms. The main part of the building will consist of a compact book stack of six tiers, arranged on the one hand to be accessible to the various reading rooms and consultation rooms, and also arranged that parts of the stack can be sectioned off and used for the deposit of such works as from their value or character need not be open to the general body of students for consultation. It is proposed thus to create a section of the stack for the library of the American Oriental Society, insuring the Society's books being kept together under lock and key, and still readily accessible to its members. The stack will of course be absolutely fire-proof, well lighted during the day by natural light from the west, and by electric light during the evening hours. Well-lighted tables will be placed in the stack and in immediate proximity to the books, where the members of the Society may consult its books free from interruption. The expansion of the library will be provided for, so that as long as the books of the Society are in deposit in the University Library they will be kept together and separate from the University's books.

The impending transfer of our books from their present cramped quarters emphasized with particular force the need of cataloguing the Society's Library; for without'a catalogue it is practically impossible to administer properly or use conveniently a large collection of books such as our library now holds. However, with the chronic deficit in our treasury, such a plan would have remained a pious wish had it not been for the most generous offer of Miss Margaret D. Whitney to undertake the cataloguing of the Society's library without compensation and as a labor of love. Miss Whitney, who is a trained librarian, undertook the work with characteristic energy and I hope to be able to report at

the next meeting that the greater part of the Society's library has been competently catalogued. A new and heavy indebtedness will thus be added to the many and important obligations which our Society, since its inception, owes to the name of William Dwight Whitney. The thanks of the Society are due to John C. Schwab, Esq., Librarian of the Yale University Library, for many favors and valued assistance, and to Henry Gruener, Esq., of the Yale University Library, who, as in previous years, has rendered much assistance to the Librarian.

Respectfully submitted.

HANNS OERTEL,

April 16, 1906.

Librarian.

On motion of Professor Bloomfield the Society expressed its thanks to Miss Margaret Whitney for her services in preparing a catalogue of the library.

The report of the Editors of the Journal, Professors Hopkins and Torrey, was presented by Professor Torrey, and is as fol-

lows:

REPORT OF THE EDITORS.

The twenty-sixth volume of the Journal was issued in two parts, the First Half appearing in August, 1905. and the Second Half in March, 1906. The volume contained 468 pages in all; or 416 pages exclusive of the Proceedings, List of Additions to the Library (covering the period April 1898-April 1905), List of Members, and Notices.

The late appearance of the Second Half of this volume was due chiefly to a printers' strike, which continued for a long time and reduced our publishers to straits. It is likely that the effect of this same strike will be felt in the publication of vol. xxvii; but probably the delay will not be great.

The following persons, recommended by the Directors, were elected members of the Society:

HONORARY MEMBERS.

Professor Ferdinand Justi.

Professor Ignaz Goldziher.

CORPORATE MEMBERS.

Harold Herman Bender.
C. A. B. Brockwell.
William L. De Vries.
Florence Alden Gragg.
Paul Vincent Harper.
Franklin W. Hooper.
Nicholas A. Koenig.
Isaac G. Matthews.
Rowland H. Mode.
William Muss-Arnolt.
Charles J. Ogden.
Benjamin W. Robinson.
Mrs. Edward E. Salisbury.
O. A. Toffteen.

Francis Branch Blodgett.
Wallace B. Fleming.
Edward Atwood Henry.
Charles Eilsworth Horne.
Robert J. Lau.
Alonzo A. Madsen.
Martin A. Meyer.
Hans K. Moussa.
James B. Nies.
Samuel G. Oliphant.
Johann F. Scheltema.
Gilbert Campbell Scoggin.
John M. P. Smith.
Eben F. Thompson.

470 American Oriental Society's Proceedings, April, 1906. [1906.

MEMBERS OF THE SECTION FOR THE HISTORICAL STUDY OF RELIGIONS.

Rev. W. A. Shedd.

Rev. G. E. White.

The committee appointed at Springfield to nominate officers (Messrs. Moore, Jackson, and Jastrow: see Journal, vol. xxvi, p. 425) reported through its chairman, Professor Moore, as follows:

At the last meeting of the Society, Mr. Gilman, who has filled the office of President most acceptably since 1893, having expressed his desire that he should not be asked to serve after this year, a committee was appointed to nominate officers at the present meeting, with the understanding that the election would be held at the first session, so that the President should take his seat at the meeting at which he was elected; and it was voted "that in future the President be requested to prepare an address on some phase of the progress or significance of Oriental studies to be read at the annual meeting." This Society has been peculiarly fortunate in its Presidents, and it has been accustomed to re-elect them from year to year so long as they were willing to serve it. In most of the other American learned societies the presidency is an honor which is annually conferred upon some distinguished scholar, and it was plainly in the mind of the Society in the plan which it adopted at Springfield that it should in future be so among us also. It is not proposed that any new rule be made, but merely that the usage hitherto prevailing shall not be regarded as having the force of prescription.

The committee nominated the following officers, who were unanimously elected:

President-Professor Crawford Howell Toy, of Cambridge, Mass.

Vice-Presidents—Dr. William Hayes Ward, of New York; Professor Charles R. Lanman, of Cambridge; Professor Maurice Bloomfield, of Baltimore.

Corresponding Secretary-Professor E. Washburn Hopkins, of New Haven

Recording Secretary—Professor George F. Moore, of Cambridge. Secretary of the Section for Religions—Professor Morris Jastrow, Jr., of Philadelphia.

Treasurer-Professor Frederick Wells Williams, of New Haven.

Librarian-Professor Hanns Oertel, of New Haven.

Directors—The officers above named; and President Daniel Coit Gilman, of Washington; Professor Robert F. Harper, of Chicago; Professors Richard Gottheil and A. V. Williams Jackson, of New York; Professor Paul Haupt, of Baltimore; Professor Henry Hyvernat, of Washington; Professor Charles C. Torrey, of New Haven.

Professors G. F. Moore, A. V. W. Jackson, and M. Jastrow, Jr. were appointed a committee to nominate officers at the next annual meeting.

At twelve o'clock President Gilman delivered his address, on "Recent Contributions by Americans to the Knowledge of the

Orient."

The second session of the Society began at half-past two o'clock, with President C. II. Toy in the chair, and proceeded to the reading of papers. The following communications were presented:

Dr. F. R. Blake, of Johns Hopkins University, Contributions

to comparative Philippine grammar.

Dr. J. C. Ferguson, of Shanghai, China, The abolition of

competitive examinations in China.

Professor Gottheil, of Columbia University, Muhammad Abdu, late Mufti of Egypt.—Remarks were made by Professor W. M. Muller.

Dr. L. H. Gray, of Newark, N. J., The Dūtāngada of Subhaṭa, now first translated from the Sanskrit and Prākrit.

Mr. G. C. O. Haas, of Columbia University, Dhanika's commentary on the Daśarūpa.—Remarks were made by Professor Lanman.

Professor Hopkins, of Yale University, On the Buddhist rule against eating meat.—Remarks were made by Professors Bloomfield, Lanman, and Toy.

Professor Bolling, of the Catholic University of America, A plan for an edition of the Atharva Veda Parisistas.—Remarks were made by Professor Bloomfield.

Professor Jackson, of Columbia University, Indo-Iranian

notes (read by title); The Zoroastrians of Yezd.

Professor Jastrow, of the University of Pennsylvania, Did the Babylonian temples have libraries?—Remarks were made by Professors W. M. Müller, Barton, and Gottheil.

Professor Jewett, of the University of Chicago, Announce-

ment of a new series of Arabic texts.

At a quarter past five the Society adjourned to half past nine Wednesday morning.

The Society met on Wednesday morning at half past nine o'clock, with President Toy in the chair. Professor Toy expressed his appreciation of the honor the Society had done in electing him to the Presidency; in following a line of eminent predecessors he should rely on the co-operation of the members of the Society to maintain its high standard of efficiency.

The reading of papers was resumed. The following com-

munications were presented:

Professor Lanman, of Harvard University, Twin consonants at the junction of two consecutive words.—Remarks were made by Professors Jewett, Jastrow, and Bolling, and Dr. Ward.

Professor Moore, of Harvard University, On a leather garment from an Egyptian tomb, now in the Boston Museum of Fine Arts, which has been described as an "ephod."—Remarks were made by Professor W. M. Müller and Dr. Ward.

Professor Bloomfield, of Johns Hopkins University, Some emendations of Vedic texts.—Remarks were made by Professor

Lanman.

Dr. Lucia C. G. Grieve, of New York, Demonstration of a

Brahman woman's daily worship in the house.

Miss Margaretta Morris, of Philadelphia, Race and custom in the Malay archipelago.—Remarks were made by Professor Jastrow.

Mr. J. H. Moore, of Columbia University, Onomatopoetic words in Sanskrit.—Remarks were made by Professor Bloom-

field.

Professor Fay, of the University of Texas, Studies of San-

skrit words (presented by Professor Bloomfield).

Professor W. M. Müller, of Philadelphia, The goddess of the Carthaginians.—Remarks were made by Professors Gottheil, Torrey, Jastrow, and Moore.

Professor Torrey, of Yale University, The last sentence of the Tabnit tomb inscription.—Remarks were made by Profes-

sors Gottheil and Arnold.

Professor Haupt, of Johns Hopkins University, Semitic verbs derived from particles; The etymology of Hebrew mohel, "circumciser;" The Talmudic passage, Succah 45b, and Psalm cxviii. 27; Some Indo-European etymologies (read in abstract by Dr. Blake).

Dr. Lau, of Columbia University, 'abēl in the Bible; A sup-

plement to the Old Babylonian vocabulary (read by title).

At half past twelve the Society took a recess till half past two.

The Corresponding Secretary reported for the Directors that the next annual meeting will be held in Philadelphia, Penn., beginning on April 4, 1907. A committee of arrangements was appointed, consisting of Dr. Talcott Williams, Professor Jastrow, and Professor Müller.

The Directors further reported that they had appointed Professor E. Washburn Hopkins and Professor Charles C. Torrey

Editors of the Journal for the ensuing year.

On motion of Professor Hopkins the following resolution was

unanimously adopted by a rising vote:

The members of the American Oriental Society desire to express to their retiring President, Dr. Daniel C. Gilman, their appreciation of the services rendered during the thirteen years of his Presidency, and to record herewith their heartiest thanks for the zeal and devotion he has always shown to the interests of this Society.

The following communications were presented:

Professor Jastrow, of the University of Pennsylvania, The

story of Tabi-Utul-Bel.

Professor Lyon, of Harvard University, Abbreviated legal expressions in early Babylonian contracts; Seal impressions on early Babylonian contracts.—Remarks were made by Messrs. Jastrow, Arnold, Gottheil, and Allen.

Professor Gottheil, of Columbia University, A distinguished family of Fatimide Cadis (al-Nu'man) in the tenth century.

Professor Lyon, of Harvard University, The date of the Babylonian king Immeru.—Remarks were made by Messrs. Allen and Jastrow.

Professor Toy, of Harvard University, The decay of totem-

ism .- Remarks were made by Professor Hopkins.

Dr. F. R. Blake, of Johns Hopkins University, Comparative syntax of the noun and its modifiers in Semitic; The expression of case by the verb in Tagalog (read by title and abstract).

The following resolution of thanks was unanimously adopted:
The American Oriental Society desires to express its thanks
to Yale University for the use of the Library of the Classical
Club as a meeting place; to the Graduates' Club for the privileges of its Club house; to the resident members of the Society
and the ladies for their hospitality; and to the Committee for
the arrangements, which have contributed much to the success
of the meeting and the pleasure of those in attendance.

At five o'clock the Society adjourned, to meet in Philadelphia,

Penn., April 4th, 1907.

The following communications were read by title:

Mr. Aaron Ember, Modern additions to the Hebrew language; A new Modern Hebrew-English and English-Hebrew dictionary.

—Dr. T. C. Foote, The metrical form of the Songs of Degrees,

—Mr. L. B. Wolfenson, The Pi'lel in Hebrew; The infixes la. li, and lo in Tagalog.—Professor Christopher Johnston, Egyptian chronology.—Professor D. G. Lyon, Female votaries in the days of Hammurabi.—Professor Oertel, Contributions from the Jāiminīya Brāhmaṇa, sixth series; A Greek inclusive (elliptical) plural and a Sanskrit inclusive singular.

LIST OF MEMBERS.

REVISED, DECEMBER, 1906.

The number placed after the address indicates the year of election.

I. HONORARY MEMBERS.

M. AUGUSTE BARTH, Membre de l'Institut, Paris, France. (Rue Garancière, 10.) 1898.

Dr. RAMKRISHNA GOPAL BHANDARKAR, C.I.E., Dekkan Coll., Poona, India. 1887.

JAMES BURGESS, LL.D., 22 Seton Place, Edinburgh, Scotland. 1899.

Dr. Antonio Maria Ceriani, Ambrosian Library, Milan, Italy. 1890. Prof. Berthold Delbeueck, University of Jena, Germany. 1878.

Prof. FRIEDRICH DELITZSCH, University of Berlin, Germany. 1893.

Prof. ADOLPH ERMAN, Steglitz, Friedrich Str. 10/11, Berlin, Germany. 1903.

Prof. RICHARD GARBE, University of Tübingen, Germany. (Biesinger Str. 14.) 1902.

Prof. Karl F. Geldner, University of Berlin, Germany. (Luebecker Str. 40, N. W.) 1905.

Prof. M. J. DE GOEJE, University of Leyden, Netherlands. (Vliet 15.) 1898.

George A. Grierson, C.I.E., D.Litt., I.C.S. (retired), Rathfarnham, Camberley, Surrey, England. Corporate Member, 1899; Hon., 1905.

Prof. IGNAZ GOLDZIHER, vii Holló-Utcza 4. Budapest, Hungary.

Prof. IGNAZIO GUIDI, University of Rome, Italy. (Via Botteghe Oscure, 24.) 1893.

Prof. FERDINAND JUSTI, Marburg, Germany.

Prof. HENDRIK KERN, University of Leyden, Netherlands. 1893.

Prof. Franz Kielhorn, University of Göttingen, Germany. (Hainholzweg, 21.) 1887.

Prof. ALFRED LUDWIG, University of Prague, Bohemia. (Königliche Weinbirge, Kramerius-gasse 40.) 1898.

Prof. Gaston Maspero, Collège de France, Paris, France. (Avenue de l'Observatoire, 24.) 1898.

Prof. Theodor Noeldeke, University of Strassburg, Germany. (Kalbs-gasse 16.) 1878.

Prof. RICHARD BISCHEL, University of Berlin, Germany. (Halensee, Joachim Friedrichstrasse 47.) 1902.

Prof. Eduard Sachau, University of Berlin, Germany. (Wormser Str. 12, W.) 1887.

Prof. ARCHIBALD H. SAYCE, University of Oxford, England. 1893.

Prof. EBERHARD SCHRADER, University of Berlin, Germany. (Kronprinzen-Ufer 20, N. W.) 1890.

Prof. JULIUS WELLHAUSEN, University of Göttingen, Germany. (Weber Str. 18a.) 1902.

Prof. Ernst Windisch, University of Leipzig, Germany. (Universitäts Str. 15.) 1890. [Total, 25.]

II. CORPORATE MEMBERS.

Names marked with † are those of life members.

Rev. Dr. JUSTIN EDWARDS ABBOTT, Tardeo, Bombay, India. 1900.

Dr. CYRUS ADLER, U. S. National Museum, Washington, D. C. 1884.

F. STURGES ALLEN, 246 Central St., Springfield, Mass. 1904.

Miss May Alice Allen, 397 Elm St., New Haven, Conn. 1906.

Prof. EDWARD V. ARNOLD, University College of North Wales, Bangor, Great Britain, 1896.

Mrs. Emma J. Arnold, 275 Washington St., Providence, R. I. 1894.

Prof. WILLIAM R. ARNOLD, Theological Seminary, Andover, Mass. 1893.

Dr. KANICHI ASAKAWA, Publishing Dept., Waseda University, Tokyo, Japan. 1904.

Rev. EDWARD E. ATKINSON, City Hall, Taunton, Mass. 1894.

Hon. Simeon E. Baldwin, LL.D., 44 Wall St., New Haven, Conn. 1898. LEROY CARE BARRET, Box 86, Johns Hopkins University, Baltimore, Md.

Prof. George A. Barton, Bryn Mawr College, Bryn Mawr, Pa. 1888.

Prof. L. W. BATTEN, 232 East 11th St., New York. 1894.

Prof. Harlan P. Beach, Yale University, 79 Howe St., New Haven, Conn. 1898.

Prof. Willis J. Beecher, D.D., Theological Seminary, Auburn, N. Y. 1900.

HAROLD H. BENDER, Johns Hopkins Univ., Baltimore, Md. 1906.

Rev. Joseph F. Berg, Port Richmond, S. I., N. Y. 1893.

Dr. WILLIAM STURGIS BIGELOW, 60 Beacon St., Boston, Mass. 1894.

Prof. JOHN BINNEY, Berkeley Divinity School, Middletown, Conn. 1887.

Dr. Frank Ringgold Blake (Johns Hopkins Univ.), Dixon Park, Mt. Washington, Md. 1900.

Rev. David Blaustein, Educational Alliance, 197 East Broadway, New York, N. Y. 1891.

FREDERICK J. BLISS, Clifton Springs, New York.

Francis B. Blodgett, General Theological Seminary, Chelsea Square, N. Y. 1906.

Prof. Carl August Blomgren, Augustana College and Theol. Seminary, Rock Island, Ill. 1900.

Prof. Maurice Bloomfield, Johns Hopkins University, Baltimore, Md. 1881.

Prof. CHARLES W. E. Body (General Theological Seminary), 9 Chelsea Square, New York, N. Y. 1897.

Dr. Alfred Boissier, Le Rivage près Chambésy, Switzerland. 1897.

Dr. George M. Bolling, Catholic Univ. of America, Washington, D. C. 1896.

Prof. James Henry Breasted, University of Chicago, Chicago, Ill. 1891.

Prof. CHAS. A. BRIGGS (Union Theological Seminary), 700 Park Ave., New York, N. Y. 1879.

Prof. C. A. B. BROCKWELL, Univ. of Kings College, Windsor, Nova Scotia, Canada. 1906.

Dr. Paul Brönnle, 78 Burdett Ave., Westcliff-on-Sea, England. 1908. Prof. Francis Brown (Union Theological Seminary), 700 Park Ave.,

Prof. Francis Brown (Union Theological Seminary), 700 Park Ave., New York, N. Y. 1881.

Prof. Carl Darling Buck, University of Chicago, Chicago, Ill. 1892. Rev. John Campbell, Kingsbridge, New York, N. Y. 1896.

Rev. SIMEON J. CARR, 1527 Church St., Frankford, Philadelphia, Pa. 1892.

Pres. Franklin Carrer, care Hon. F. J. Kingsbury, Waterbury, Conn. 1873.

Dr. Paul Carus, La Salle, Illinois. 1897.

Dr. I. M. CASANOWICZ, U. S. National Museum, Washington, D. C. 1893.

Miss Eva Channing, Hemenway Chambers, Boston, Mass. 1883.

Dr. Frank Dyer Chester, United States Consulate, Buda-Pesth, Hungary. 1891.

Rev. HENRY N. COBB, 25 East 22d St., New York, N. Y. 1875.

†George Wetmore Colles, 62 Fort Greene Place, Brooklyn, N Y. 1882.

Prof. HERMANN COLLITZ, Bryn Mawr College, Bryn Mawr, Pa. 1887.

Miss ELIZABETH S. COLTON, Easthampton, Mass. 1896.

C. EVERETT CONANT, Translator-Interpreter Executive Bureau, Manila, P. I. 1905.

WILLIAM MERRIAM CRANE, 16 East 37th St., New York, N. Y. 1902.

OSCAR T. CROSBY, Cosmos Club, Washington, D. C. 1904.

STEWART CULIN, Brooklyn Institute Museum, Eastern Parkway; Brooklyn, N. Y. 1888.

Rev. Charles W. Currier, 941 F St., Washington, D. C. 1904.

Prof. JOHN D. DAVIS, Princeton Theological Seminary, Princeton, N. J. 1888.

LEE MALTBIE DEAN, Westbrook, Maine. 1897.

Prof. Alfred L. P. Dennis, 5735 Washington Ave., Chicago, Ill. 1900.

JAMES T. DENNIS, University Club, Baltimore, Md. 1900.

Rev. WILLIAM L. DE VRIES, 301 A St. S. E., Washington, D. C. 1906.

Rev. D. STUART DODGE, 99 John St., New York, N. Y. 1867.

DAVID J. DOHERTY, M.D., P. O. Box 727, Manila, P. I. 1905.

Dr. Harry Westbrook Dunning, 5 Kilsyth Road, Brookline, Mass. 1894. Wilberforce Eames, Lenox Library, 890 Fifth Ave., New York, N. Y.

Prof. FREDERICK C. EISELEN, Garrett Biblical Inst., Evanston, Ill. 1901.
Mrs. WILLIAM M. ELLICOTT, 106 Ridgewood Road, Roland Park, Md. 1897.

Prof. Levi H. Elwell, Amherst College, Amherst, Mass. 1883.

AARON EMBER, Johns Hopkins Univ., Baltimore, Md. 1902.

Rev. ARTHUR H. EWING, The Jumna Mission House, Allahabad, N. W. P., India. 1900.

Rev. Prof. C. P. FAGNANI, 772 Park Ave., New York, N. Y. 1901.

Prof. EDWIN WHITFIELD FAY (University of Texas), 200 West 24th St., Austin, Texas. 1888.

ERNEST F. FENOLLOSA, 159 Church St., Mobile, Ala. 1894.

Prof. HENRY FERGUSON, Trinity College, Hartford, Conn. 1876.

Dr. JOHN C. FERGUSON, 110 Bubbling Well Road, Shanghai, China. 1900.

RALPH HALL FERRIS, 41 East 69th St., New York, N. Y. 1905.

CLARENCE STANLAY FISHER, Rutledge, Delaware Co., Pa. 1905.

†Lady Caroline De Filippi Fitz Gerald, 167 Via Urbana, Rome, Italy. 1886.

Rev. Wallace B. Fleming, Maplewood, N. J. 1906.

Rev. THEODORE C. FOOTE, Johns Hopkins University, Baltimore, Md. 1900.

†FRANK B. FORBES, 65 Marlborough St., Boston, Mass. 1864.

Rev. Jas. Everett Frame (Union Theological Sem.), 700 Park Ave., New York, N. Y. 1892.

Prof. ISRAEL FRIEDLAENDER (Jewish Theological Seminary), 1549 St. Nicholas Ave., New York, N. Y. 1904.

Dr. WILLIAM H. FURNESS, 3d, Wallingford, Delaware Co., Penn. 1897.

Dr. Fletcher Gardner, Fort Michie, N. Y. 1905.

ROBERT GARRETT, Continental Building, Baltimore, Md. 1903.

Prof. Basil Lanneau Gildersleeve, Johns Hopkins Univ., Baltimore, Md. 1858.

Pres. Daniel Coit Gilman, 614 Park Ave., Baltimore, Md. 1857.

LOUIS GINZBERG, 60 West 115th St., New York, N. Y. 1900.

Prof. WILLIAM WATSON GOODWIN (Harvard Univ.), 5 Follen St., Cambridge, Mass. 1857.

Prof. RICHARD J. H. GOTTHEIL (Columbia Univ.), 2074 Fifth Ave., New York, N. Y. 1886.

Miss Florence A. Grage, 26 Maple Ave., Cambridge, Mass. 1906.

JACOB GRAPE, JR., Bond and Jefferson Sts., Baltimore, Md. 1888.

LOUIS H. GRAY, 354 Summer Ave., Newark, N. J. 1897.

Miss Lucia C. Graeme Grieve, 462 West 151st St., New York, N. Y. 1894.

Miss Louise H. R. Grieve, M.D., Satara, Bombay Presidency, India. 1898.

Dr. Karl Josef Grimm, Pennsylvania College, Gettysburg, Pa. 1897.
Prof. Louis Grossmann (Hebrew Union College), 2212 Park Ave.,
Cincinnati, O. 1890.

CHAS. F. GUNTHER, 212 State St., Chicago, Ill. 1889.

Rev. ADOLPH GUTTMACHER, 1833 Linden Ave., Baltimore, Md. 1896.

GEORGE C. O. HAAS, 64 East Seventh St., New York, N. Y. 1903.

Dr. CARL C. HANSEN, Lakawn Lampang, Laos, Siam (via Brindisi, Moulmain, and Raheng). 1902. PAUL V. HARPER, 59th St. and Lexington Ave., Chicago, Ill. 1906.

Prof. Robert Francis Harper, Univ. of Chicago, Chicago, Ill. 1886:

Prof. Samuel Hart, D.D., Berkeley Divinity School, Middletown, Conn.

Prof. PAUL HAUPT (Johns Hopkins Univ.), 2511 Madison Ave., Baltimore. 1883.

Rev. Edward Hayes, Johns Hopkins Univ., Baltimore, Md. 1904. Dr. Henry Harrison Haynes, 6 Ellery St., Cambridge, Mass. 1892.

EDWARD A. HENRY, 70 Middle Divinity, University of Chicago, Ill. 1906. Col. Thos. Wentworth Higginson, 25 Buckingham St., Cambridge, Mass. 1869.

Prof. Hermann V. Hilprecht (Univ. of Pennsylvania), 403 South 41st St., Philadelphia, Pa. 1887.

Prof. FRIEDRICH HIRTH (Columbia Univ.), 501 West 113th St., New York, N. Y. 1903.

Prof. Charles T. Hock (Theological Seminary), 220 Liberty St., Bloomfield, N. J. 1903.

†Dr. A. F. Rudolf Hoernle, 8 Northmoor Road, Oxford, England. 1893. Rev. Hugo W. Hoffman, 306 Rodney St., Brooklyn, N. Y. 1899.

Prof. Franklin W. Hooper, 502 Fulton St., Brooklyn, N. Y. 1906.

Prof. E. Washburn Hopkins (Yale Univ.), 299 Lawrence St., New Haven, Conn. 1881.

CHAS. E. HORNE, 5836 Drexel Ave., Chicago, Ill. 1906.

Rev. Thomas P. Hughes, D.D., 585 Park Place, Brooklyn, N. Y. 1905.

Rev. Robert E. Hume, Ahmednagar, India. 1900.

Miss Annie K. Humpherey, 1114 14th St., Washington, D. C. 1873.

HENRY MINOR HUXLEY, 31 William St., Worcester, Mass. 1902.
Prof. HENRY HYVERNAT (Catholic Univ. of America), 3405 Twelfth St.,
N. E. (Brookland), Washington, D. C. 1889.

Prof. A. V. WILLIAMS JACKSON (Columbia Univ.), 10 Highland Place, Yonkers, N. Y. 1885.

JOHN DAY JACKSON, 86 Crown St., New Haven, Conn. 1905.

Prof. Morris Jastrow, Jr. (Univ. of Pennsylvania), 248 South 23d St., Philadelphia, Pa. 1886.

Miss Mary JEFFERS, Bryn Mawr, Pa. 1900.

Rev. HENBY F. JENKS, P. O. Box 79, Canton Corner, Mass. 1874.

Prof. James Richard Jewett, Quadrangle Club, Chicago, Ill. 1887.

Prof. Christopher Johnston (Johns Hopkins University), 21 West 20th
St., Baltimore, Md. 1889.

Prof. MAX KEILNER, Episcopal Theological School, Cambridge, Mass. 1886.

Miss Eliza H. Kendrick, 45 Hunnewell Ave., Newton, Mass. 1896. Prof. Charles Foster Kent (Yale Univ.), 406 Humphrey St., New Haven, Conn. 1890.

Prof. George L. Kittredge (Harvard University), 9 Hilliard St., Cambridge, Mass. 1899.

NICHOLAS A. KOENIG, 80 West 12th St., New York, N. Y. 1906.

Rev. George A. Kohut, 781 West End Ave., New York, N. Y. 1894.

STEPHEN HERBERT LANGDON, Grassistrasse 26, Leipzig, Germany. 1902.

†Prof. Charles Rockwell Lanman (Harvard Univ.), 9 Farrar St., Cambridge, Mass. 1876.

ROBERT JULIUS LAU, 650 Leonard St., Brooklyn, N. Y. 1906.

BERTHOLD LAUFER, American Museum of National History, 77th St., and Central Park West, New York, N. Y. 1900.

†HENRY C. LEA, 2000 Walnut St., Philadelphia, Pa. 1898.

C. S. Leavenwoeth, care of Brown, Shipley & Co., 123 Pall Mall, London, England. 1900.

FREDERICK LENT, 177 Lawrence St., New Haven, Conn. 1906.

Prof. Caspar Levias, Hebrew Union College, Cincinnati, Ohio. 1892. Robert Lilley, Grafton, Mass. 1894.

Prof. THOMAS B. LINDSAY, Boston Univ., Boston, Mass. 1883.

Prof. CHARLES E. LITTLE (Vanderbilt Univ.), 308 Gowday St., Nashville, Tenn. 1901.

Prof. Enno Littman, University, Strassburg, i/E., Germany. 1902.

Rev. JACOB W. LOCH, 89 Schermerhorn St., Brooklyn, N. Y. 1899.

Percival Lowell, care of Putnam & Putnam, 50 State St., Boston, Mass. 1893.

†Benjamin Smith Lyman, 708 Locust St., Philadelphia, Pa. 1871.

Prof. DAVID GORDON LYON, Harvard Univ. Semitic Museum, Cambridge, Mass. 1882.

ALBERT MORTON LYTHGOE, Metropolitan Museum of Art, New York, N. Y. 1899.

Mrs. Matilda R. McConnell, 112 Madison Ave., New York, N. Y. 1890.Prof. Duncan B. Macdonald, Hartford Theological Seminary, Hartford, Conn. 1893.

Rev. Charles S. Macfarland, 37 Bayview Ave., South Norwalk, Conn. 1898.

Lieut. WILLIAM E. W. MACKINLAY, 1st U. S. Cavalry, Lemon Building, 1729 New York Ave., N. W., Washington, D. C. 1904.

ALBERT A. MADSEN, Durham, Conn. 1906.

Prof. Herbert W. Magoun, 70 Kirkland St., Cambridge, Mass.

Prof. Max L. Margolis, Hebrew Union College, Cincinnati, Ohio. 1890.

Prof. ALLAN MARQUAND, Princeton Univ., Princeton, N. J. 1888.

Prof. WINFRED ROBERT MARTIN, Trinity College, Hartford, Conn. 1889.

ISAAC G. MATTHEWS, McMaster Univ., Toronto, Canada. 1906.

MARTIN A. MEYER, 22 St. Francis Place, Brooklyn, N. Y. 1906.

TRUMAN MICHELSON, R.F.D. 48, Ridgefield, Conn. 1899.

Mrs. Helen L. Million (née Lovell), Hardin College, Mexico, Missouri. 1892.

Prof. LAWRENCE H. MILLS (Oxford University), 119 Iffley Road, Oxford, England. 1881.

Prof. EDWIN KNOX MITCHELL (Hartford Theol. Sem.), 57 Gillette St., Hartford, Conn. 1898.

ROLAND H. MODE, 144 South D, Univ. of Chicago, Ill. 1906.

Prof. J. A. Montgomery (P. E. Divinity School), 6806 Green St., Germantown, Pa. 1903.

Prof. George F. Moore (Harvard University), 3 Divinity Ave., Cambridge, Mass. 1887.

JUSTIN HARTLEY MOORE, 8 West 119th St., New York, N. Y. 1904.

†Mrs. Mary H. Moore, 3 Divinity Ave., Cambridge, Mass. 1902.

PAUL ELMER MORE, 265 Springdale Ave., East Orange, N. J. 1893.

Miss Margaretta Morris, 2106 Spruce St., Philadelphia, Pa. 1903.

Prof. EDWARD S. MORSE, Salem, Mass. 1894.

Rev. Hans K. Moussa, Burlington, Wis. 1906.

Rev. Dr. Philip S. Moxom, 83 Dartmouth Terrace, Springfield, Mass. 1898.

Prof. W. Max Mueller, 27 North Farson St., Philadelphia, Pa. 1905.
Rev. Prof. A. J. Elder Mullan, S.J., Georgetown University, Washington, D. C. 1889.

Mrs. Ethel Watts Mumford, 31 West 81st St., New York, N. Y. 1904. Dr. William Muss-Abnolf, Belmont, Mass. 1906.

Rev. JAS. B. NIES, Christ Church Rectory, Sharon, Conn. 1906.

Prof. CHARLES ELIOT NORTON, Cambridge, Mass. 1857.

Rt. Rev. Mgr. Dennis T. O'Connell, D.D. (Catholic University), Washington, D. C. 1903.

Prof. Hanns Oertel (Yale Univ.), 2 Phelps Hall, New Haven, Conn. 1890.

CHAS. J. OGDEN, 250 West 88th St., New York, N. Y. 1906.

Miss Ellen S. Ogden, St. Agnes School, Albany, N. Y. 1898.

SAMUEL G. OLIPHANT, Johns Hopkins Univ., Baltimore, Md. 1906.

Prof. Paul Oltramare (University of Geneva), Ave. de Bosquets, Servette, Genève, Switzerland. 1904.

†ROBERT M. OLYPHANT, 160 Madison Ave., New York, N. Y. 1861.

JOHN ORNE, 104 Ellery St., Cambridge, Mass. 1890.

Prof. George W. Osborn, New York University, New York, N. Y. 1894.

Rev. Dr. Charles Ray Palmer, 562 Whitney Ave., New Haven, Conn. 1900.

Prof. Lewis B. Paton, Hartford Theological Seminary, Hartford, Conn. 1894.

Prof. WALTER M. PATTON, Baker Univ., Baldwin, Kansas. 1903.

Dr. Charles Peabody, 197 Brattle St., Cambridge, Mass. 1892.

Prof. ISMAR J. PERITZ, Syracuse University, Syracuse, N. Y. 1894.

Prof. Edward Delavan Perry (Columbia Univ.), 542 West 114th St., New York, N. Y. 1879.

Rev. Dr. John P. Peters, 225 West 99th St., New York, N. Y. 1882.

Prof. David Philipson, Hebrew Union College, Cincinnati, O. 1889.

WILLIAM POPPER, 260 West 93d St., New York, N. Y. 1897.

Prof. IRA M. PRICE, Univ. of Chicago, Chicago, Ill. 1887.

Prof. JOHN DYNELEY PRINCE (Columbia Univ.), Sterlington, Rockland Co., N. Y. 1888.

GEORGE PAYN QUACKENBOS, 331 West 28th St., New York, N. Y. 1904.

Pres. F. P. RAMSAY (King College), Bristol, Tenn.

HORACE M. RAMSEY, San Mateo, Cal. 1902.

Dr. HERMANN RANKE, Royal Museum, Berlin, Germany. 1905.

Dr. George Andrew Reisner, The Pyramids, Cairo, Egypt. 1891,

ERNEST C. RICHARDSON, Library of Princeton Univ., Princeton, N. J. 1900.

J. Nelson Robertson, 294 Avenue Road, Toronto, Ont. 1902.

BENJ. W. ROBINSON, 700 Park Ave., New York, N. Y. 1906.

EDWARD ROBINSON, Metropolitan Museum of Art, New York, N. Y. 1894.

Prof. George Livingston Robinson (McCormick Theol. Sem.), 10 Chalmers Place, Chicago, Ill. 1892.

Hon. WILLIAM WOODVILLE ROCKHILL, Peking, China. 1880.

Prof. Robert W. Rogers, Drew Theological Seminary, Madison, N. J. 1888.

Prof. James Hardy Ropes (Harvard University), 13 Follen St., Cambridge, Mass. 1893.

WILLIAM ROSENAU, Johns Hopkins Univ., Baltimore, Md. 1897.

Miss ADELAIDE RUDOLPH, 18 Wilbur St., Cleveland, O. 1894.

Mrs. Janet E. Ruutz-Rees, 219 West 80th St., New York, N. Y. 1897.

Miss Catharine B. Runkle, 15 Everett St., Cambridge, Mass. 1900.

ARTHUR W. RYDER (University of California), 2243 Piedmont Way, Berkeley, Cal. 1902.

Mrs. Edw. E. Salisbury, 237 Church St., New Haven, Conn. 1906.

Rev. Dr. Frank K. Sanders, 22 Rockview St., Jamaica Plain, Mass. 1897.

President S. SCHEGHTER (Jewish Theological Seminary), 501 West 113th St., New York, N. Y. 1904.

JOHANN F. SCHELTEMA, care of Messrs. Kerkhoven & Co., 115 Heerengracht, Amsterdam, Holland. 1906.

H. ERNEST SCHMID, White Plains, N. Y. 1866.

Prof. NATHANIEL SCHMIDT, Cornell University, Ithaca, N. Y.

MONTGOMERY SCHUYLER, Jr., Dept. of State, Washington, D. C. 1899.

GILBERT C. SCOGGIN, Caruthersville, Mo. 1906.

CHARLES P. G. SCOTT, 150 Woodworth Ave., Yonkers, N. Y. 1895.

Rev. WILLIAM G. SEIPLE, 78 Higashi Sambancho, Sendai, Japan. 1902. J. HERBERT SENTER, 10 Avon St., Portland, Me. 1870.

CHARLES C. SHERMAN, 65 Irving Place, New York, N. Y. 1904.

†The Very Rev. JOHN R. SLATTERY, 261 Central Park West, New York, N. Y. 1903.

Prof. Henry Preserved Smith, 419 W. 118th St., New York, N. Y. 1877. John M. P. Smith, Univ. of Chicago, Ill. 1906.

WILLIAM WALLACE SPENCE, Jr., Bolton, Baltimore, Md. 1900.

EDWARD H. SPIEKER; Johns Hopkins Univ., Baltimore, Md. 1884.

Prof. Hans H. Spoer, Ph.D., Theological Seminary, Meadville, Pa. 1899.

Rev. DAVID BRAINARD SPOONER, The Archaeological Survey, Peshawar, India. 1902.

Prof. CHARLES C. STEARNS, 126 Garden St., Hartford, Conn. 1899.

Rev. James D. Steele, 15 Grove Terrace, Passaic, N. J. 1892.

Rev. Anson Phelps Stokes, Jr., Yale University, New Haven, Conn. 1900.

Prof. Edward Henry Strobel, care Foreign Office, Bangkok, Siam. 1903. Mayer Sulzberger, 1303 Girard Ave., Philadelphia, Pa. 1888.

VOL. XXVII. 32

HENRY OSBORN TAYLOR, Century Association, 7 West 43d St., New York, N. Y. 1899.

EBEN FRANCIS THOMPSON, 311 Main St., Worcester, Mass. 1906.

Rev. Dr. J. J. Tierney, Mount St. Mary's College, Emmitsburg, Md. 1901.

Prof. Henry A. Topp (Columbia University), 824 West End Ave., New York, N. Y. 1885.

OLAF A. TOFFTEEN, 1113 Washington Building, Chicago, Ill.

Prof. CHARLES C. TORREY (Yale University), 67 Mansfield St., New Haven, Conn. 1891.

Prof. CRAWFORD H. Toy (Harvard University), 7 Lowell St., Cambridge, Mass. 1871.

Rev. Joseph Vincent Tracy, 20 Holton St., Allston, Boston, Mass. 1892.

Addison Van Name (Yale Univ.), 121 High St., New Haven, Conn. 1863.

THOMAS E. WAGGAMAN, 917 F St., N. W., Washington, D. C. 1897.

Miss Susan Hayes Ward, The Stone House, Abington Ave., Newark, N. J. 1874.

Rev. Dr. William Hayes Ward, 130 Fulton St., New York, N. Y. 1869. Miss Cornelia Warren, Cedar Hill, Waltham, Mass. 1894.

Prof. WILLIAM F. WARREN (Boston Univ.), 131 Davis Ave., Brookline, Mass. 1877.

Rev. W. Scott Watson, West New York, New Jersey. 1893.

Prof. J. E. WERREN, 17 Leonard Ave., Cambridge, Mass. 1894.

Prof. Jens Iverson Westengard (Harvard Univ.), Asst. Gen. Adviser to H.S.M. Govt., Bangkok, Siam. 1903.

Pres. Benjamin Ide Wheeler, University of California, Berkeley, Cal. 1885.

Prof. JOHN WILLIAMS WHITE (Harvard Univ.), 18 Concord Ave., Cambridge, Mass. 1877.

Miss Maria Whitney, 2 Divinity Ave., Cambridge, Mass. 1897.

Mrs. WILLIAM DWIGHT WHITNEY, 227 Church St., New Haven, Conn. 1897.

Rev. E. T. WILLIAMS, U. S. Legation, Peking, China. 1901.

Prof. FREDERICK WELLS WILLIAMS (Yale Univ.), 135 Whitney Ave., New Haven, Conn. 1895.

TALCOTT WILLIAMS ("The Press"), 916 Pine St., Philadelphia, Pa. 1884. Rev. Dr. WILLIAM COPLEY WINSLOW, 525 Beacon St., Boston, Mass. 1885.

Rev. STEPHEN S. WISE, 46 East 68th St., New York, N. Y. 1894.

HENRY B. WITTON, Inspector of Canals, 16 Murray St., Hamilton, Ontario. 1885.

Louis B. Wolfenson, 513 Laurens St., Baltimore, Md. 1904.

WILLIAM W. WOOD, 2802 Parkwood Ave., Baltimore, Md. 1900.

James H. Woods (Harvard Univ.), 2 Chestnut St., Boston, Mass. 1900.

Prof. John Henry Wright (Harvard Univ.), 38 Quincy St., Cambridge, Mass. 1898.

Prof. THEODORE F. WRIGHT, 42 Quincy St., Cambridge, Mass. 1893.

Rev. James Owens Wrightson, 1031 Monument St., Baltimore, Md. 1903.

Rev. Abraham Yohannan, Columbia University, New York, N. Y. 1894.
1894.

[Total, 273.]

III. MEMBERS OF THE SECTION FOR THE HISTORICAL STUDY OF RELIGIONS.

Prof. Felix Adler, Ph.D., 123 East 60th St., New York, N. Y. 1900.

Rev. Dr. Samuel H. Bishop, 500 West 122d St., New York, N. Y. 1898.

Rev. JOHN L. CHANDLER, Auburndale, Mass. 1899.

SAMUEL DICKSON, 901 Clinton St., Philadelphia, Pa. 1899.

Prof. Franklin H. Giddings (Columbia Univ.), 150 West 79th St., New York, N. Y. 1900.

Prof. ARTHUR L. GILLETT, Hartford Theological Seminary, Hartford, Conn. 1898.

CHARLES B. GULICK (Harvard University), 18 Walker St., Cambridge, Mass. 1899.

Prof. Lindley M. Keasbey, University of Texas, Austin, Texas. 1903.

Prof. George T. Ladd (Yale Univ.), 204 Prospect St., New Haven, Conn. 1898.

Prof. HINCKLEY G. MITCHELL, Ph.D., D.D. (Boston University), 72 Mt. Vernon St., Boston, Mass. 1900.

WILLIAM W. NEWELL, 54 Garden St., Cambridge, Mass. 1898.

FRED NORRIS ROBINSON, Ph.D. (Harvard Univ.), Longfellow Park, Cambridge, Mass. 1900.

Rev. Dr. MINOT J. SAVAGE, 34th St. and Park Ave., New York, N. Y. 1898.

Rev. W. A. Shedd, Am. Mission, Urumia, Persia (via Berlin and Tabriz). 1906.

Prof. EDWIN R. SELIGMAN (Columbia Univ.), 324 West 86th St., New York, N. Y. 1898.

Prof. Langdon C. Stewardson, Lehigh University, South Bethlehem, Pa. 1901.

Prof. WILLIAM G. SUMNER (Yale Univ.), 240 Edwards St., New Haven, Conn. 1898.

Prof. CHARLES MELLEN TYLER, Cornell Univ., Ithaca, N. Y. 1904.

Prof. R. M. WENLEY, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, Mich. 1898.

Rev. G. E. White, Anatolia College, Marsovan, Turkey [papers to German Consulate (White), Samsoun, Turkey.] 1906.

Prof. IRVING F. WOOD, Smith College, Northampton, Mass. 1905.

[Total, 21.]

Number of Members of all Classes, 319.

Societies, Libraries, to which the Publications of the American Oriental Society are sent by way of Gift or Exchange.

I. AMERICA.

Boston, Mass.: American Academy of Arts and Sciences.

CHICAGO, ILL.: Field Museum of Natural History.

New York: American Geographical Society.

PHILADELPHIA, PA .: American Philosophical Society.

Free Museum of Science and Art, Univ. of Penna.

WASHINGTON, D. C.: Smithsonian Institution.

Bureau of American Ethnology.

Worcester, Mass.: American Antiquarian Society.

II. EUROPE.

Austria, Vienna: Kaiserliche Akademie der Wissenschaften.

Anthropologische Gesellschaft.

Prague: Königlich Böhmische Gesellschaft der Wissenschaften.

DENMARK, ICELAND, REYKJAVIK: University Library.

France, Paris : Société Asiatique. (Rue de Seine, Palais de l'Institut.) Bibliothèque Nationale.

> Musée Guimet. (Avenue du Trocadéro.) Académie des Inscriptions et Belles-Lettres.

École des Langues Orientales Vivantes. (Rue de Lille, 2.)

GERMANY, BERLIN: Königlich Preussische Akademie der Wissenschaften. Königliche Bibliothek.

Seminar für Orientalische Sprachen. (Am Zeughause 1.)

GÖTTINGEN: Königliche Gesellschaft der Wissenschaften.

HALLE: Bibliothek der Deutschen Morgenländischen Gesellschaft. (Friedrichstr. 50.)

Leipzig: Königlich Sächsische Gesellschaft der Wissenschaften. Leipziger Semitistische Studien. (J. C. Hinrichs.)

MUNICH: Königlich Bairische Akademie der Wissenschaften. Königliche Hof- und Staatsbibliothek.

TUBINGEN: Library of the University.

GREAT BRITAIN, LONDON: Royal Asiatic Society of Great Britain and Ireland. (22 Albemarle St., W.)

Library of the India Office. (Whitehall, SW.) Society of Biblical Archæology. (37 Great Russell St., Bloomsbury, W.C.)

Philological Society. (Care of Dr. F. J. Furnival, 3 St. George's Square, Primrose Hill, NW.)

ITALY, FLORENCE: Società Asiatica Italiana.

Rome: Reale Accademia dei Lincei.

NETHERLANDS, AMSTERDAM: Koninklijke Akademie van Wetenschappen.

THE HAGUE: Koninklijk Instituut voor Taal-, Land-, en
Volkenkunde van Nederlandsch Indië.

LEYDEN: Curatorium of the University.

RUSSIA, HELSINGFORS: Société Finno-Ougrienne.

St. Petersburg: Imperatorskaja Akademija Nauk.

Archeologiji Institut.

SWEDEN, UPSALA: Humanistiska Vetenskaps-Samfundet.

Le Monde Oriental (cf. Professor K. F. Johansson, Upsala).

III. ASIA.

- CALCUTTA, GOV'T OF INDIA: Home Department.
- CEYLON, COLOMBO: Ceylon Branch of the Royal Asiatic Society. CHINA, SHANGHAI: China Branch of the Royal Asiatic Society.
- TONKIN: l'École Française d'extrême Orient (Rue de Coton),
 - Tonkin: l'Ecole Française d'extrême Orient (Rue de Coton), Hanoi.
- INDIA, BOMBAY: Bombay Branch of the Royal Asiatic Society.

 The Anthropological Society. (Town Hall.)
 - CALCUTTA: The Asiatic Society of Bengal. (57 Park St.)
 - The Buddhist Text Society. (86 Jaun Bazar St.)
 - LAHORE: Library of the Oriental College.
 - SIMLA: Office of the Director General of Archaeology. (Benmore, Simla, Punjab.)
- JAPAN, TOKYO: The Asiatic Society of Japan.
- JAVA, BATAVIA: Bataviaasch Genootschap van Kunsten en Wetenschappen.
- KOREA: Branch of Royal Asiatic Society, Seoul, Korea.
- New Zealand: The Polynesian Society, New Plymouth.
- PHILIPPINE ISLANDS: The Ethnological Survey, Manila.
- SYRIA: The American School (care U. S. Consul, Jerusalem).
 - Revue Biblique, care of M. J. Lagrange, Jerusalem. Al-Machriq, The Catholic Press, Beirut, Syria.

IV. AFRICA.

EGYPT, CAIRO: The Khedivial Library.

V. EDITORS OF THE FOLLOWING PERIODICALS.

- The Indian Antiquary (Education Society's Press, Bombay, India).
- Wiener Zeitschrift für die Kunde des Morgenlandes (care of Alfred Hölder, Rothenthurm-str. 15, Vienna, Austria).
- Zeitschrift für vergleichende Sprachforschung (care of Prof. E. Kuhn, 3 Hess Str., Munich, Bavaria).
- Revue de l'Historie des Religions (care of M. Jean Réville, chez M. E. Leroux, 28 rue Bonaparte, Paris, France).
- Zeitschrift für die alttestamentliche Wissenschaft (care of Prof. Bernhard Stade, Giessen, Germany).
- Beiträge zur Assyriologie und semitischen Sprachwissenschaft. (J. C. Hinrichs'sche Buchhandlung, Leipzig, Germany.)
- Oriental Bibliography (care of Prof. Lucian Scherman, 18 Ungerer Str., Munich, Bavaria).
- The American Antiquarian and Oriental Journal, 438 East 57th St., Chicago, Ill.
- American Journal of Archaeology, 65 Sparks St., Cambridge, Mass.
 - RECIPIENTS: 319 (Members) + 69 (Gifts and Exchanges) = 388.

REQUEST.

The Editors request the Librarians of any Institution or Libraries, not mentioned above, to which this Journal may regularly come, to notify them of the fact. It is the intention of the Editors to print a list, as complete as may be, of regular subscribers for the Journal or of recipients thereof. The following is the beginning of such a list.

Andover Theological Seminary.
Boston Public Library.
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Chicago University Library.
Columbia University Library.
Cornell University Library.
Harvard Sanskrit Class-Room Library.
Harvard Semitic Class-Room Library.
Harvard University Library.
Nebraska University Library.
New York Public Library.
Yale University Library.

CONSTITUTION AND BY-LAWS

OF THE

AMERICAN ORIENTAL SOCIETY.

With Amendments of April, 1897.

CONSTITUTION.

ARTICLE I. This Society shall be called the American Oriental Society.

ARTICLE II. The objects contemplated by this Society shall be:—

 The cultivation of learning in the Asiatic, African, and Polynesian languages, as well as the encouragement of researches of any sort by which the knowledge of the East may be promoted.

2. The cultivation of a taste for oriental studies in this country.

 The publication of memoirs, translations, vocabularies, and other communications, presented to the Society, which may be valuable with reference to the before-mentioned objects.

4. The collection of a library and cabinet.

ARTICLE III. The members of this Society shall be distinguished as

corporate and honorary.

ARTICLE IV. All candidates for membership must be proposed by the Directors, at some stated meeting of the Society, and no person shall be elected a member of either class without receiving the votes of as many as three-fourths of all the members present at the meeting.

ARTICLE V. The government of the Society shall consist of a President, three Vice Presidents, a Corresponding Secretary, a Recording Secretary, a Secretary of the Section for the Historical Study of Religions, a Treasurer, a Librarian, and seven Directors, who shall be annually elected by ballot, at the annual meeting.

ARTICLE VI. The President and Vice Presidents shall perform the customary duties of such officers, and shall be ex-officio members of the

Board of Directors.

ARTICLE VII. The Secretaries, Treasurer, and Librarian shall be ex-officio members of the Board of Directors, and shall perform their respective duties under the superintendence of said Board.

ARTICLE VIII. It shall be the duty of the Board of Directors to regulate the financial concerns of the Society, to superintend its publications, to carry into effect the resolutions and orders of the Society, and to exercise a general supervision over its affairs. Five Directors at any regular meeting shall be a quorum for doing business.

ARTICLE IX. An Annual meeting of the Society shall be held during Easter week, the days and place of the meeting to be determined by the Directors, said meeting to be held in Massachusetts at least once in three years. One or more other meetings, at the discretion of the Directors, may also be held each year at such place and time as the Directors shall determine.

ARTICLE X. There shall be a special Section of the Society, devoted to the historical study of religions, to which section others than members of the American Oriental Society may be elected in the same manner as is prescribed in Article IV.

ARTICLE XI. This Constitution may be amended, on a recommendation of the Directors, by a vote of three-fourths of the members present at an

annual meeting.

BY-LAWS.

I. The Corresponding Secretary shall conduct the correspondence of the Society, and it shall be his duty to keep, in a book provided for the purpose, a copy of his letters; and he shall notify the meetings in such manner as the President or the Board of Directors shall direct.

II. The Recording Secretary shall keep a record of the proceedings of

the Society in a book provided for the purpose.

III. a. The Treasurer shall have charge of the funds of the Society; and his investments, deposits, and payments shall be made under the superintendence of the Board of Directors. At each annual meeting he shall report the state of the finances, with a brief summary of the receipts and payments of the previous year.

III. b. After December 31, 1896, the fiscal year of the Society shall

correspond with the calendar year.

III. c. At each annual business meeting in Easter week, the President shall appoint an auditing committee of two men—preferably men residing in or near the town where the Treasurer lives—to examine the Treasurer's accounts and vouchers, and to inspect the evidences of the Society's property, and to see that the funds called for by his balances are in his hands. The Committee shall perform this duty as soon as possible after the New Year's day succeeding their appointment, and shall report their findings to the Society at the next annual business meeting thereafter. If these findings are satisfactory, the Treasurer shall receive his acquittance by a certificate to that effect, which shall be recorded in the Treasurer's book, and published in the Proceedings.

IV. The Librarian shall keep a catalogue of all books belonging to the Society, with the names of the donors, if they are presented, and shall at each annual meeting make a report of the accessions to the library during the previous year, and shall be farther guided in the discharge of his

duties by such rules as the Directors shall prescribe.

V. All papers read before the Society, and all manuscripts deposited by authors for publication, or for other purposes, shall be at the disposal of the Board of Directors, unless notice to the contrary is given to the Editors at the time of presentation.

VI. Each corporate member shall pay into the treasury of the Society an annual assessment of five dollars; but a donation at any one time of seventy-five dollars shall exempt from obligation to make this payment.

VII. Corporate and Honorary members shall be entitled to a copy of all the publications of the Society issued during their membership, and shall also have the privilege of taking a copy of those previously published, so far as the Society can supply them, at half the ordinary selling price.

VIII. Candidates for membership who have been elected by the Society shall qualify as members by payment of the first annual assessment within one month from the time when notice of such election is mailed to them. A failure so to qualify shall be construed as a refusal to become a member. If any corporate member shall for two years fail to pay his assessments, his name may, at the discretion of the Directors, be dropped from the list of members of the Society.

IX. Members of the Section for the Historical Study of Religions shall pay into the treasury of the Society an annual assessment of two dollars; and they shall be entitled to a copy of all printed papers which fall within the scope of the Section.

X. Six members shall form a quorum for doing business, and three to adjourn.

SUPPLEMENTARY BY-LAWS.

I. FOR THE LIBRARY.

- The Library shall be accessible for consultation to all members of the Society, at such times as the Library of Yale College, with which it is deposited, shall be open for a similar purpose; further, to such persons as shall receive the permission of the Librarian, or of the Librarian or Assistant Librarian of Yale College.
- 2. Any member shall be allowed to draw books from the Library upon the following conditions: he shall give his receipt for them to the Librarian, pledging himself to make good any detriment the Library may suffer from their loss or injury, the amount of said detriment to be determined by the Librarian, with the assistance of the President, or of a Vice President; and he shall return them within a time not exceeding three months from that of their reception, unless by special agreement with the Librarian this term shall be extended.
- 3. Persons not members may also, on special grounds, and at the discretion of the Librarian, be allowed to take and use the Society's books, upon depositing with the Librarian a sufficient security that they shall be duly returned in good condition, or their loss or damage fully compensated.



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GENERAL NOTICES.

 Members are requested to give immediate notice of changes of address to the Treasurer, Prof. Frederick Wells Williams, 135 Whitney avenue, New Haven, Conn.

2. It is urgently requested that gifts and exchanges intended for the Library of the Society be addressed as follows: The Library of the American Oriental Society, Yale University, New Haven, Connecticut, U. S. America.

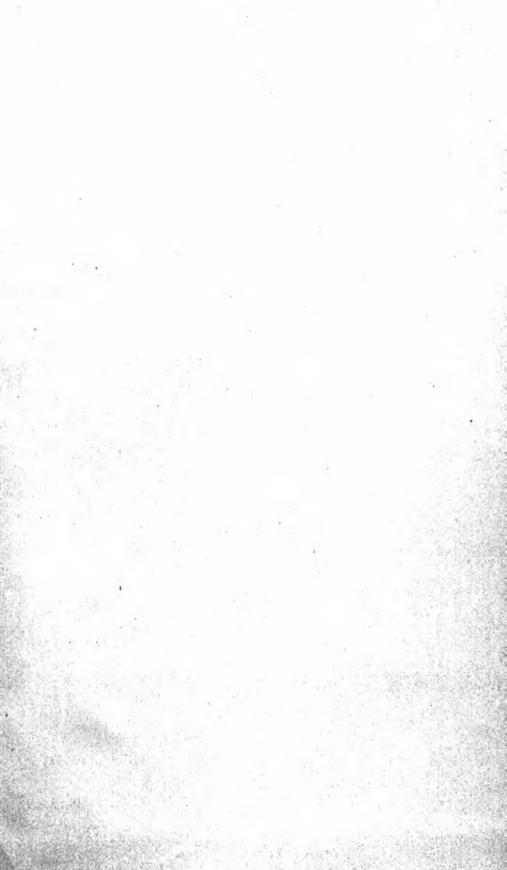
3. For information regarding the sale of the Society's publications, see the next foregoing page.

Communications for the Journal should be sent to Prof.
 Washburn Hopkins or Prof. Charles C. Torrey, New Haven.

CONCERNING MEMBERSHIP.

It is not necessary for any one to be a professed Orientalist in order to become a member of the Society. All persons—men or women—who are in sympathy with the objects of the Society and willing to further its work are invited to give it their help. This help may be rendered by the payment of the annual assessments, by gifts to its library, or by scientific contributions to its Journal, or in all of these ways. Persons desiring to become members are requested to apply to the Treasurer, whose address is given above. Members receive the Journal free. The annual assessment is \$5. The fee for Life-Membership is \$75.

Persons interested in the Historical Study of Religion may become members of the Section of the Society organized for this purpose. The annual assessment is \$2; members receive copies of all publications of the Society which fall within the scope of the Section.





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